

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

JUNE, 1932

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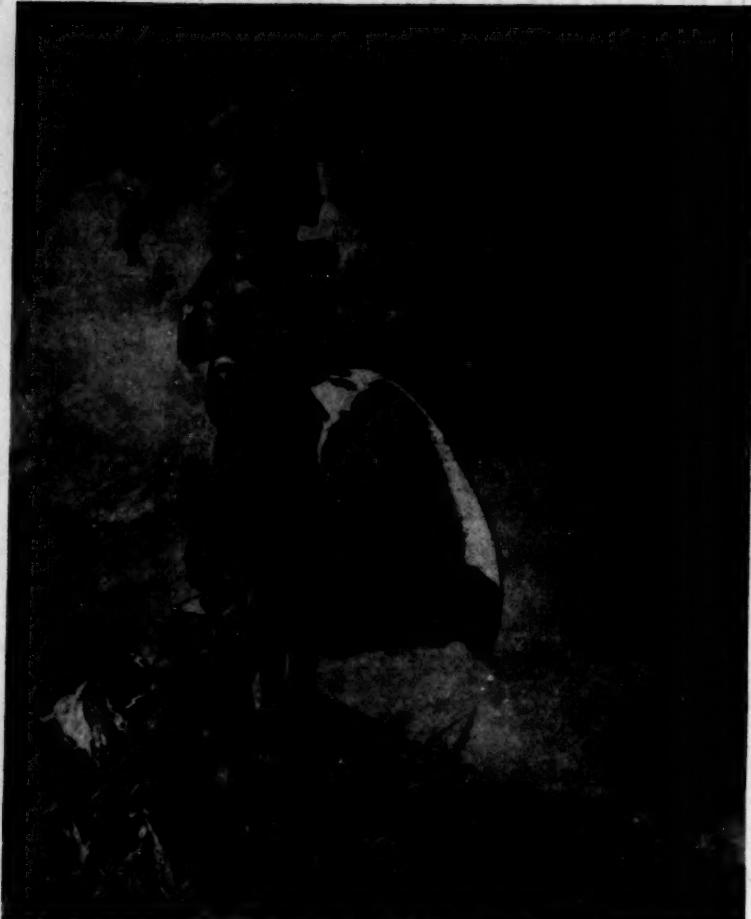
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The Spirit of the Prairies by Elizabeth Dolan, The State Capitol, Lincoln, Nebraska

O beautiful for spacious skies,
For amber waves of grain,
For purple mountain majesties
Above the fruited plain!

Katharine Lee Bates

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

For the Advancement of Nursery—Kindergarten—Primary Education

Vol. VIII

JUNE, 1932

No. 10

When Does Education Begin?*

HONORABLE RAY LYMAN WILBUR
Secretary of the Interior, Washington, D. C.

SOMEBODY told me today a new definition for a conservative. It is a definition that is one hundred years old so that it has withstood the test. The conservative is a man who refuses to look at the new moon out of respect for the old.

We live in a period when we will have to take a look at the new moon and do it rather often, for these days are somewhat different even from the time when the statement I have just given you was made. Not a great many years ago you could rather depend upon the conditions which your children would face, while we have no idea what the children in our kindergartens today will face when they are twenty years old. The world has been changed and transformed by the things that we have done to civilization with the help of knowledge, science, and discovery. So that we must get something of a fresh start in our conceptions of nearly everything,—and certainly in our conceptions of education.

I used the topic "When Does Education Begin?" not to argue the question of whether it is right for Willy to go to

school when he is six and Mary when she is seven or eight, but to indicate that education begins with life. Education begins when life begins, and ends when life ends. We must not think any more of education as this particular process made up of curricula and so on, through which we put our children during certain years. Sometimes it really isn't anything more than miseducation.

Education must be viewed in much broader terms. As a matter of fact, I think children learn more before the age of five than they do at any other period of their lives. Their minds are growing more rapidly. They have more to absorb. Their bodies are growing more rapidly. The whole process is an active one. We never have paid very much attention to it, speaking broadly, somehow. But the experiments that have been conducted at the Institute of Human Relations of watching children, taking moving pictures of them almost from their first days, give us a little fresh conception of the problems of the child, of mastering a machine, a muscle, nerve complex, which must be operated, over which control must be gained. And as you see those children in the ex-

*Convention Opening Address: Association for Childhood Education, May, 1932, Washington, D. C.

perimental room or see the pictures, you understand how important, as the child goes on from day to day learning new things, that particular process is. One of the most fortunate things in the world for babies is that they smile early. The smile of the little child wins the affections of those who come in contact with it. Perhaps the cry of the child is just as important, perhaps even more so from the standpoint of the child, because it gets attention often more readily than does the smile. And so people go through life never having learned to smile, but crying all the time. We are conscious of that here in Washington. A good part of our mail comes from people who have never learned to smile, but who are experts in crying; some might even say, whining.

But the child has its intricate mechanism to control, a mechanism that must be self-sustaining, self-supporting. It is true it has besides the muscles and the brain, certain services of blood and food and so on, and certain organs that are used. But primarily it is a living mechanism, which once set in motion must keep with that motion until death; which is subject to growth, and which possesses something that we call the brain, which has the capacity in healthy, normal people to expand and grow throughout the years.

We have had a lot of foolish ideas, and many of them have come from our grandmothers. Our grandmothers used to go into the rocking chair when they were about fifty years of age and quiet down. Now we have found that at about the age of sixty they begin to get into a second motion. Now most of the things that are happening in the United States in the way of welfare are due to women who should have quieted down to the rocking chair stage and have been content to watch the children grow up, and give advice to the mothers as to how the process should be carried on.

The psychologists have been working on old age, and they have found out that people learn just as well when they are fifty as they do when they are fifteen, if

they want to and some of them learn even better than at the early stage. So that it is the process that begins with childhood, goes right on through, until either death or disease changes its capacity.

We put in the middle of the early period something that we call the school. Then we have another thing that we call the college, and perhaps a university. They are simply mechanisms that have been created to do certain things over a certain period. We have had the nerve—really the nerve—to call that process an education, and to label it and say, "Here you are, you are educated." That is not the proper use of the term "education." Education begins when the individual is born and should continue all the way through.

Let us go back for a moment to the early period to see what it is that intrigues the child to go ahead. Well, there is curiosity, there is interest, and there are appetites of various kinds. And these sometimes stimulate this living mechanism to do certain things. We think we are rather superior.

A while ago one of my friends who is interested in youth made a study of the chimpanzee. In fact, he had the idea that by bringing his little baby boy up with the chimpanzee, treating them exactly alike, that after a certain length of time he would determine whether the boy was a monkey or the chimpanzee was a human. It is working all right so far. But they haven't had long to try it out.

In the early experiments he got some new animals and put them in under surroundings that were very much like that of a playroom, to see what the monkeys would do. Then after he had left them there he came back and looked through the keyhole to see what they were doing. Much to his surprise he found that one of the monkeys was on the other side of the keyhole.

That isn't a very good start for claiming superiority in curiosity for the human race. And yet that curiosity is the basis upon which we for the most part depend in the development of what we call educa-

tion. But the driving power is appetites of various sorts. And those appetites begin to manifest themselves for the most part very early. They have a large part to play in the life of the child, and they have much to do with what the child does, in the way that the time of the child is consumed.

You know more about this early period of childhood than I do because you live with it. All I am is a good husband, with a good wife, five children, and eleven grandchildren. And I have never given advice at home for the very simple reason that I have always been paid for the advice that I give, and I get nothing of that kind, even gratitude, at home.

Having qualified then as something of an expert, I want to now go on and qualify further by telling you that I have here certain of the findings of the committee on the preschool period of the White House Conference. I want to take up just one or two points from that in order to emphasize certain things with which you are quite familiar.

I was speaking of the time of the child. That is all that the child has. It has a body containing a brain, and time. Everything else is incidental. The environment may be quite different. But the environment doesn't belong to the child; for the most part it belongs to us. How the child consumes its time is of great significance, for we are convinced that the way in which that time is spent determines a great many things, not only character and habits and to some degree personality, but a good many other of the important processes of life.

How do children spend their time? There is a whole series of observations on some four thousand children here. I will just take a few points. "Children in the lower classes are more likely to play in the street or vacant lots, while those of a somewhat higher economic status are more likely to play in the parks. The average one year olds spend five hours and fifteen minutes outdoors. The two and three year olds spend six hours and thirty min-

utes. The four and five year old, seven hours and ten minutes. After the age of six boys spend more time outdoors than do girls. In the six-seven year group, boys spend eight hours and thirty-four minutes; girls seven hours and fifty minutes outdoors. As age increases after six there is a slight decrease in the length of time spent outdoors, but the sex differences persist."

All right, but where is outdoors for the majority of the children of the United States? Is it the street? Is it the back-yard? Is it out in the country? Is it in a park? You know a great mass of our children when they go outdoors go nowhere, no place that a child should go. This is what we have done. We have built up a mechanism here so that we are sending almost a majority of our children onto the streets. And what have we put on the streets? Fast-moving vehicles, all kinds of people, commotion, disorder, and difficulties of all kinds for a growing child. And yet in the six-seven year group boys spend eight hours and thirty-four minutes and girls seven hours and fifty minutes.

We found out in the White House Conference that recreation, health, and education were equally important, one not more than the other; and that welfare was just as important as any of the other three. The conference was built around those four great subjects in order that we should see the child from a new and broader standpoint than merely the school child, or the way the doctor looks at the child from the standpoint of health, or the welfare worker from the standpoint of welfare, or the Y. W. and Y. M. C. A. worker from the standpoint of recreation, of exercise. I am not going to elaborate on that, but you can see the significance of the influences that surround the child if time is spent in that way.

An interesting point in the study is the lack of increase in the proportion of children from ages five to seven having favorite playmates near their own age. One might expect that when the child on entering school is thrown with children of

his own age that he would tend to adopt some of this school fellows as favorite playmates. The table does not bear out the supposition. In other words, associations come early. Children are friendly. They have comparatively little in the way of prejudice during the period when they mix freely. It is true that those from the country seem to have more fear of strangers than those from the city, and also that sort of thing depends somewhat on the size of the family. But there is a willingness on the part of the child to smile at those who come, and to cry that others will come. They want social relations. So that along with this play opportunity social relations are developed.

Now we have added something to the social life of the children that is new. The attendance at the movies increases as the age increases. Some children attend as early as the age of one year. (I rather imagine they can understand some of these modern plays at that age about as well as I do.) When the question was asked, With whom does he usually go to the movies? it was determined that from most of the lower age levels the parents likewise attend. The question at once occurs, Did the parents go so that the children could see the movies, or did the children go so that the parents could see the movies?

If we go on with this social life and the sketch that we have here, the most common educational institution for the pre-school child is the kindergarten. Twenty-one and one-tenth per cent of the five year olds attend. I was rather pleased to see that nearly thirty per cent are in attendance in so far as this group is concerned. Nursery schools are attended by the two, three, and four year olds: Five and one-tenth per cent at two years, seven and three-tenths per cent at three, and six and nine-tenths per cent at four. At least four thousand children were sampled in various ways.

The nursery schools and play schools are attended by children of higher classes;

day nurseries by those of the lower classes. The term "class" there was used in a way that had to do with economic status. Kindergartens are attended by children of all groups in about equal proportions.

The conclusions may be drawn that as yet the majority of the children in the United States under the age of six have no other educational opportunities than that afforded by contact with their parents, or occasional attendance at Sunday schools. Look over their parents and see what you think the prospects are for you.

We have an organization called Parent Education Association—and we need it. The task of bringing up children, dealing with these little dynamos that I have described, is a very difficult one. Most of them think that is something that is acquired by instinct—the way a frog knows how to jump into the water when somebody touches him. Parenthood now is an expert business.

I started out by saying we did not know what our children have to face. And certainly we must think in terms of the fullest preparation if we are going to do the right things for them.

Then my heart goes out to little children anyhow who have to live with their parents. I think that adjustment to a parent must be the most difficult adjustment on earth. Think of having somebody that can grab you by the back of the neck any time he or she feels like it, can order you this way or that way, and can pile up spinach on your plate and make you look at it; and can provide more contrivances to annoy and disturb the things that you want to do than seem possible; who have an ability to exercise their voices in a sharp and harsh manner over things that seem of absolutely no consequence whatsoever. Why, adjustment of childhood, to parenthood, is a joke when you compare it with the adjustment between a young man and a young woman entering the marriage relation. And the children have to put up with it. They have no very good way to get out of it. They can't even use the modern methods that we are familiar with.

So that they are caught in a mechanism which they cannot control.

There are a good many things in this report that may interest you. In the upper social groups the fathers have the most schooling. In the lower economic groups the mothers have the most schooling. The grandmothers are a source of information to approximately one-fifth of the mothers. So that the grandmother has her day.

Below the age of six months, sixty per cent of the boys and fifty-six and eight-tenths per cent of the girls do not show fear. After the age of six months the most frequent source of fear is loud noise. After the age of six months strangers, dogs, and dark increase in importance. I mention and bring out fears here for we find the susceptibility of children in these early years is very great. Fears established at that time, while they may be buried, may go on clear through life and have a profound effect long after they seem to have disappeared.

I will not go further into this report. I know that you are going to get a lot of this sort of thing from the other speakers, and it is a little rough to start with that the first evening. But I do want to bring up one thing here about this emotional life of the child. The farm children fear the dark, storms, and strangers more so than the children of other occupational groups. But fewer farm children fear dogs. In other words, the things they can get their hands on and understand they are not afraid of. But those things that are spoken of with an air of mystery or that seem out of control have a profound effect upon young children.

One interesting thing about this discussion of these four thousand cases is this: According to the Freudian theory one would expect to find the boys' favorites to be their mothers and the girls' their fathers. This theory is not substantiated in this study. Twenty-two per cent of the boys prefer their mothers and only twenty per cent of the girls do likewise. This difference is of no practical significance.

Besides, at most ages a larger percentage of girls than of boys prefer their mothers. Further evidence is given in the percentages having the father as their favorite. Here we find that fifteen and seven-tenths per cent of the boys prefer their fathers and thirteen and nine-tenths per cent of the girls prefer their fathers.

It is evident that most children in both sexes prefer their mothers to their fathers. The mothers are more sympathetic, are with them more than their fathers, and have a more intimate relationship with the child.

The data on sisters and brothers as favorites show a very slight but consistent tendency of more boys than girls to have brothers as favorites and more girls than boys to have sisters as favorites. This is exactly the reverse of the so-called Freudian point of view.

I mention that because there has been so much foolishness and bunk about that Freudian theory. When you try to base a general understanding of a whole population on a few hothouse specimens raised in the bizarre conditions of the European cities and forget that most of us are raised in the clean open air and on good solid soil, you are apt to go wrong. That is what has been done in this particular field. We have to be careful in these days of fads and fancies not to jump too fast on new ideas that are somewhat intoxicating and that may be almost, on further discussion and experimentation, exceedingly disappointing.

So don't be confused. Although you seek for new things and get out of the conservative group, remember that the old essentials of life still stand. The wholesome, well-born children with good heritage, given a sound normal opportunity, good, fresh air, sound parents and good experience, have the best prospect of developing into good citizens. It is a great thing for us to realize that these little citizens have difficulties of all sorts, and we can assist many of them with these difficulties. But each one must work out his own problem. Each one must go by

the kind of nervous system that he has. They are unlike from the start, and our greatest problem it seems to me now is to begin an early segregation of groups on the basis of their strong points. If we are to succeed with this civilization of ours we will need all of our talent, and we must discover it early. We must have citizens who can handle themselves and operate themselves, rather than be controlled by someone else. And if they are going to operate well they must be trained well. If they are to get the best

training they must know what their capacities are. So it is important to seek the qualities of the individual child, and to seek them early, and to develop from that point. It is more important than it is to fasten upon our childhood a systematic curriculum through which we force children in the hope that they will come out educated. Education begins with birth and ends with death. It is the sacred opportunity and possession of the human family. Let's play it all the way through rather than confine what we are doing to simply the school age.

May

THOMAS BAILEY ALDRICH

Robins in the tree-top, blossoms in the grass,
 Green things a-growing everywhere you pass;
 Sudden little breezes, showers of silver dew,
 Black bough and bent twig budding out anew!
 Pine tree and willow tree, fringed elm and larch—
 Don't you think that Maytime's pleasanter than March?

Vision versus Planning

ELEANOR TROXELL

Early Elementary Supervisor, Kalamazoo, Michigan

LOOKING upon the Chrysler Building, or the St. John's Cathedral in New York, the Fisher Building in Detroit, the Chapel of the University of Chicago, one is forced to admit that back of these stately buildings are the visions of the architects. One must admit, too, that their vision has been made practical, and that in order to have been made practical the architects must have had a background rich in experience. They must have worked out their visions through large plans. The completed buildings are evidence of both vision and definite planning, of artistry and practical usefulness. Step by step was each stone laid; step by step was each floor measured and tested. But with each stone laid, and each floor tested, the architects saw the unfolding of their visions, not merely so much building material put into place.

We are architects working with far finer materials, and with far more serious purposes. The materials are the potential possibilities of children; the purposes are the building of character, and guidance in living the good life.

There are three urgent points to keep in mind in the building of character.

1. These children, whose characters we are helping to form, are the grown-ups of the next generation. What sorts of citizens they will be will depend largely upon what the grown-ups of this generation will give them.
2. Nothing of worth is ever accomplished without a plan, without patience to wait for its fulfillment, without sympathetic understanding, without hard work and without vision.
3. No plan is ever successful that is not flexible, that is not rich in materials of all sorts, that cannot be entered upon by the maker and the user with whole-heartedness.

Let us consider some of the characteristics of a good plan: It must include:

1. Large goals

We must see the whole child—physical, mental, social, emotional, spiritual, as the architect sees the whole building before the building is begun. We must know what to expect of him, and what he should expect of us. This is our vision.

2. Ways of reaching goals

To build character, to help the child to live the good life, we must know ways to do it—how to give him healthful habits; rich mental food but suited to "babes"; social experiences which create eager curiosity, which give opportunities to work and play with his fellows and to solve problems; emotional experiences in music, art, literature, dance which build happy reactions; opportunities for spiritual growth through appreciations, through understanding of environment.

3. Materials to aid in reaching goals

As the architect needs materials with which to carry out his goals, so we need materials with which to carry out our goals. We need materials with which to surround the children, to stimulate play with one another, as toys, blocks; to arouse curiosity, as nature and science objects; to increase intellectual interest, as books, pictures; to encourage creative effort, as music, art, literature.

4. Diagnosis of difficulties

We need to understand why children have difficulties of behavior, of learning. We need to know what is wrong in attitudes; what in the home or other background causes wrong reactions to people and environment.

5. Means of overcoming them

Diagnosis is of little value unless there is knowledge of how to overcome the difficulties which are revealed. We need to know that, many times, discontent is caused by a too thin intellectual or emotional diet and that this condition disappears with change in the quality of mental food.

A good plan includes all of these knowledges, appreciations, and attitudes on our part. But we must not become discouraged if growth is slow, but must recognize the force of habit. "Till seventy times seven" must be our motto. But don't give up. Here is where sympathetic understanding and patience come in. We must not ever lose our vision—a child growing up every day, with better use of his environment, with better desire and effort.

It is richness of living that makes its impression on character. This is brought about by wealth of experience and material. The reason that there are so many mediocre people is that the desire for knowledge, for adventure, for fine emotional reaction has been dimmed, and people do not know how to get them for themselves. One of the biggest things to include in our plans is this richness of living, giving children opportunities for many kinds of experiences, for the use of different kinds of materials, for definite and persuasive purposes. Many times our projects or activities are unfruitful and unsatisfactory, because of the lack of these things, because there is no depth. It is sometimes said, "As soon as children complete the boat, there is no further interest." There may be two reasons for this:

1. Instead of starting with a need for a boat, children have started just building. Hence, when the building is complete, the interest is complete.
2. There is nothing further to do because children have gone as far as their knowledge carries them.

The activity, instead of being the whole aim, should be but the scaffolding, by means of which the aim is accomplished.

One step should lead to another, if growth is taking place. The need for life savers leads to the place to keep them, the dramatic use of them, becoming acquainted with the rules of the sea (if an older grade). This, in turn, leads to the knowledge of the inspection of ships to safeguard them.

Besides knowledge, such a project offers opportunities for rich use of the school subjects—reading in the boat library, or on deck, radio messages, signs; writing letters home, writing the ship's log; measuring for the life-savers, for the smoke stacks; art in making attractive menus, book covers, doilies, vases; music and dancing for the entertainment of the ship's guests. The opportunities are numberless for rich and profitable living in a child environment. If the activity is activity only it has missed its purpose, for even in Kindergarten the activity itself has further purposes—the child is changed for the better—there is acquaintanceship with materials, coordination of muscles, confidence in the use of materials, joy in achieving a goal, and many other values which strengthen character.

The important point for us is that these values are seen and provided for in whatever plan we have.

It makes little difference in benefits to the child whether the activity is initiated by himself or by us, providing he takes the purpose for his own. Most of our purposes are initiated by others. The architect usually works out another's purpose, but he makes it his own, and puts his own creative effort into it. It is this latter activity which makes the changes in him, which gives him the sense of adventure, the fine emotional reactions, growth in further and further knowledge. Just so the child's activity should affect him. But we must be the guides who fire him with this spirit of adventure, who supply him with knowledge and materials at the growing moment, who encourage, and sympathize and point out the ways to improvement, who check on growth. And we cannot be such guides unless our plan shows

us how far each period of growth extends, what is needed in those periods, the pitfalls to avoid, the remedies to apply.

Let us remember, then, that school is for purposes of education. Not one period is for any other purpose. Let us ask of every period, "How are these activities educating?" How much better child citi-

zens are these children for having been here! And let us remember, too, that nothing is accomplished worth while without a plan; that every plan must be rich in materials; possibilities for growth; and that vision must precede the plan—the vision of the child whose life has been made more vital by our plan.

The Convention Exhibit and Its Purpose

MARJORIE HARDY

Principal, Germantown Friends School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

THE exhibit at the Association for Childhood Education conference consisted of a collection of materials sent from kindergartens, first, second and third grades in various parts of the country to show reading emphasis in school activities.

The problems well known to all who are interested in providing the child with opportunities to learn to read in such a way that he may have the urge to read and the ability to read well are:

1. The importance of the reading readiness period—the time when the child is building up new meanings, concepts, and new and varied interests, his vocabulary and right attitudes toward reading material and its use, long before he learns to read.
2. The importance of carrying on units of work in social science and nature in the primary grades and making reading a part of the activities in order that the child may continue to acquire new concepts and interests and at the same time use reading in ways vital to him.
3. The importance of following the child's progress in learning to read in order that he may steadily develop right reading habits and skills as well as interest in reading.
4. The importance of selecting the right books for the child and guidance in his use of them.

The exhibit material was arranged in such a way that the observer might very quickly sense growth and continuity in the material from the kindergarten through the primary grades and the variety of reading material possible on those levels.

Excellent photographs were exhibited of children at work in the classroom and out-of-doors on wholesome worth while activities related to some big central interests of the group. In these pictures one saw children building. Some were making a playhouse, some were constructing a post-office, a boat, a bus, a train. Others were preparing to give a play, were caring for pets, and were making a garden. The photographs were most valuable in that they showed these building activities in various stages of development and also when completed with children using them.

In connection with each activity was material on charts and in booklets which had been formulated by the children themselves. This material was in the form of lists of questions asked by the children and related to the activity, plans they decided to follow in working it out and records of facts learned and clinched by formulating them in printed or written form. The exhibit showed how the line of procedure followed in a unit of work in kindergarten and first grade before the child

learns to read is the same as that followed by the third and fourth grade child. The difference is the young child acquires his data through first hand experience and through facts and stories told to him while the older child in addition to this begins to use his reading and can work on an individual problem more easily for having had the opportunity of being one of a group carrying on a group enterprise.

One of the most helpful exhibits was from Seattle, Washington. It was a unit of work on "Our Neighborhood" by a second grade. The material included two long borders, each with a picture of local scenery painted by the group—the mountains and Puget Sound; a picture map of the community, made by the group; individual and group compositions of the children in booklets on facts about the neighborhood now, e. g., *In the Park*, *On the Playground*, *The Postoffice*, *Nearby* (telling of churches, stores and interesting places); individual and group compositions in booklets by the children about the neighborhood when it was inhabited by Indians. There were also booklets of Poems and Stories, of Riddles and Number stories all related to the unit. There were booklets of material *unrelated* to the unit which brings out the fact that not all material need be or should be related to unit of work.

The third grade material at the exhibit included chart material which showed how a group works together in learning to begin the research type of reading, and also material representing a later stage, an out-growth of the other, when the child works more independently on his own unit of work.

The material at the exhibit not only showed how reading may relate to units of work, and that there may be continuity for the child in interests and growing ability to use reading material purposely, but it presented standards of work and

amount of content desirable at various levels, showing growth we may expect of children when there is a unified curriculum.

One corner of the exhibit was arranged as a library or book corner in a classroom. On a screen nearby were suggestions for stimulating the child's interest in books and reading, and for recording books read by the children. A good plan which is being followed at Shaker Heights, Cleveland, was one of the devices exhibited here.

A mother whose hobby is children's books brought from Philadelphia 165 books which the committee selected. Most of the books were published during 1931-1932. This mother, Ann Pennell, spent much time discussing these books with interested persons and in this way contributed much to the help which the exhibit gave.

One space in the exhibit room was given to Dr. Andrus, who had an excellent exhibit of record cards.

The material for the reading exhibit came from Long Beach, California, San Diego, Los Angeles, Seattle, Spokane, Washington, D. C., New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Cleveland, Kalamazoo, Michigan, Lakewood, Ohio, and Madison, Illinois.

There is a place for an exhibit in an educational program if it aims to show material related to problems confronting teachers and supervisors. The section meeting on reading at the conference used for discussion the problems and material suggested at the exhibit. Some material was taken from the exhibit to the discussion for illustrative purposes. It was suggested that it would have been more helpful if a discussion had been held in the exhibit room.

The exhibit gave us reason to feel that schools have made great strides in providing conditions developing intellectual curiosity and intelligent, voluntary love of books.

Manuscript Writing

JENNIE WAHLERT

Primary Supervisor, St. Louis, Missouri

MANY young children want to write. They begin by scribbling and, on being questioned, the scratches which are often unintelligible to the adult are easily interpreted by the child. More today than ever before are people, places, things, events accessible to children. They have more opportunities for gathering impressions in one day than their teachers had in months. Autos, radios, picture-shows, airplanes, all help to speed the tempo. Why not let children write about their interests?

Children often try to print. Many entering kindergarten and first grade, if given an opportunity, print quite legibly. Teachers of young children are anxious to find an easy tool, a tool that will free children from as many difficulties as possible. They believe that they have found this tool in the use of manuscript writing—print script as it is called in England.

For two years manuscript writing was used in six first grade rooms before it was introduced in all the first grade rooms in St. Louis. In our observations we found that children could copy with little or no effort any word they needed to express their interests. Just how easy it was we tried to find out by the following experiment:

Statement of the experiment. "Is manuscript writing an easier tool than cursive writing for beginning first grade children?"

Children in the experiment. Eight rooms of beginning first grade children, twelve weeks in school.

Experimental group (manuscript)

Two rooms of Italian children (Henry)
Two rooms of American children (Irving)

Controlled group (cursive)

Two rooms of Italian children (O'Fallon)
Two rooms of American children (Columbia)

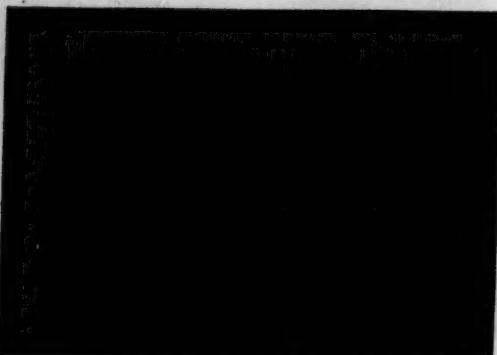
The American children were paired, as were the Italian children.

At the three conferences held, the eight teachers cooperating were present. At the *first conference* we met to discuss the method of carrying on the experiment, the selection of a handwriting scale (The Thorndike Scale for Handwriting of Children), the content of the tests and the vocabulary to be used between tests, the method to be used in giving the test, the presentation of content on days other than test days, the amount of time to be devoted to writing each day, the method of checking results, the keeping of records. At the end of two weeks, the teachers met for the *second conference* to discuss progress and to build the content for the next two weeks. A *third conference* was held at the end of the experiment to interpret the results.

On Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday and Friday during the four weeks of the experiment, any child could progress as rapidly as he was able (the writing must be as good or better than the score on the initial test). Since it was near Christmas we selected the following content. It was to be copied in this order:

I want a drum. I want some dishes. I want a ball. I want a doll. I want a wagon. I would like some candy. I would like a horn. I would like a Christmas tree. Please bring me a bicycle. Please bring me an electric train. Dear Santa Clause. Bring sister a doll buggy. Bring brother a sled. Bring father gloves. Bring mother stockings. Come to see baby. Come to see grandma. Come to see grandpa. Come to see me too.

Every Monday a test was given. Initial test, November 29, 1926—Today is Monday. Second test, December 6—This is December. Third test, December 13—Christmas is coming. Fourth test, December 20—Dear Santa, I would like to see your



Clifford Runde, test 1, score 14.



Luis Stoppleman, test 1, score 14.

reindeer. I want to hear your sleighbells jingle. The teachers had much practice in using the writing scale before grading the tests.

In presenting the test, the teacher wrote the content once, erased, wrote it again. Copies were placed on the blackboard about the room to avoid any possible eyestrain. The children copied the content once. The work was then scored and recorded by the two teachers in the experiment. Each child, under supervision, was given twenty minutes a day for blackboard writing. There was no other writing done by the children during the time of the experiment. The writer went with Mr. Nolte, the photographer of the Board of Education, who took pictures of the first and fourth tests the same afternoon. The tests were written in the morning.

An interpretation of the above results of the first and fourth tests seems to point out that—

1. There are no failures in manuscript writing.
2. Children improve in legibility more quickly.
3. Mental and chronological ages do not enter into the problem of handwriting.

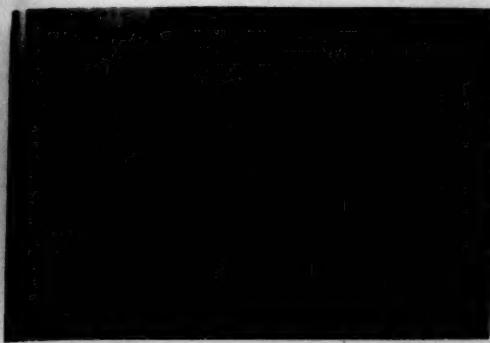
We have been observing all first grade children now over a period of seven years Our observations follow:

1. Manuscript writing practically removes the disadvantage of two kinds of script with which the children have had to

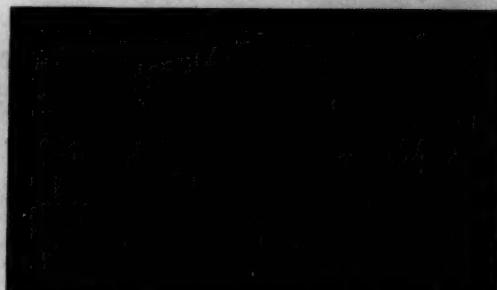
contend, in learning to read and write. If the teacher uses script, four forms of letters must be learned (printed capitals and small, and cursive capitals and small). The joinings of the letters force them further apart and change the shape of the word. Children entering the first grade are confronted with three difficult tools, reading, writing and arithmetic. One of these can be eliminated by the use of the manuscript letters and the children and teacher relieved from a vexatious problem, for with the exception of the "a" and "g" their writing tool is similar to their reading tool. They can compare more readily the print with the manuscript. Any error is more easily observed.

2. The children improve in legibility more quickly. They do not need to practice some simple uninteresting word over and over again. There is no muscular movement to worry them. They can copy any manuscript word or group needed, by just observing the teacher, charts or other children's writing. Once a letter is learned it may be used over and over in many combinations. With manuscript writing a mistake of one letter may be erased but with cursive writing the whole word must go, for a continuous movement seems desirable.

3. There are no failures. All first grade children can acquire this tool. Psychologists are stressing the value and importance of satisfaction on the part of the learner. It is most important that children do not feel failure at the beginning of their school career. Then with very



Clifford Runde, test 4, score 17.



Luis Stoppleman, test 4, score 17.

little effort they can do a beautiful satisfying piece of work. It is worth considering the effect upon young children over a period of two years at the very beginning of their school career to acquire the feeling of satisfaction because a piece of work is beautiful and well done.

4. Children build up from the very beginning the correct concept of written English. In their desire to express their interests they do not need to stop to think in their writing is this word or group too difficult, for they have no difficulty in copying the necessary vocabulary.

The following stories taken from the writings of children illustrate that they have caught a phase of written English.

III GRADE

Sunday I went to the show. They had Lowell Thomas. He told us how the Africans kill hippos. They take a spear and throw it at the hippo. If they miss him they throw another. It lives in the water.

II GRADE

Dear Mary:

We miss you. Come back to school. We read "The Little Wee Woman" today.

Marion.

I GRADE

I will water the flowers.—Jack.
Brush up.—Harry.

I GRADE

I saw a robin.—Viola.
The grass is getting green.—Katherine.
The wind is blowing hard.—Grace.

5. Manuscript writing is a great help in written spelling, for mistakes in writing words having any of these letters or combinations of these letters—a w u b o h j y v—seldom occur because some stroke of the letter has been omitted.

6. Manuscript writing helps the children to read easily and to enjoy the creative writings of the other children, and has done much to increase their reading ability. The basic words that give children much concern to remember (is, was, this, can, has, when, etc.) are used over and over in their writings. They get much drill in an interesting and delightful way.

The following taken from the writings of first grade children illustrate:

1. *I went to the zoo. I saw a bird in a cage. He flew in the cage.*

2. *Tonight a new store is opening up. They are going to give samples away.*

3. *Dear Anita: I am going to send you something for your birthday. I will give you an orange.—Alice.*

When it is desirable that the transition from manuscript to writing script be made, we have found that there is little or no difficulty. A few letters need explanation. We feel that in no way have the children been handicapped if script needs to be introduced later, for they have an extra tool with manuscript letters that they will find helpful throughout life.

Manuscript Writing from Paw Paw, Michigan

ROBERTA HEMINGWAY, Classroom Teacher

The Painted Pig



The Straw Horse



The Funny Clown

Page from a first grade alphabet book. The books were made after children had learned to read and write short sentences. It proved to be an excellent means of improving letter forms and securing better placing and spacing.



Dear boys and girls

Please come to our play

"Life on the Arabian Desert."

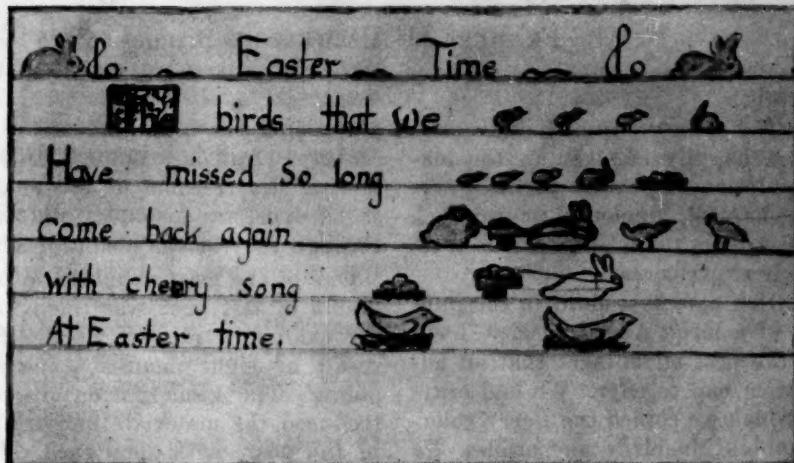
To day at nine o'clock

On the East Lawn.

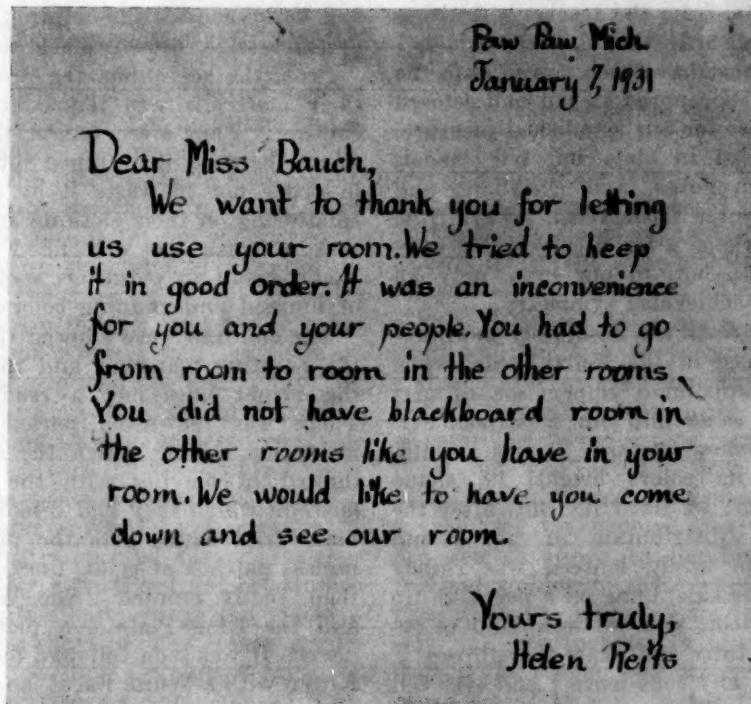


The Second Grade

Second grade children use the $\frac{1}{8}$ inch spacing during the half year. The tendency toward smaller and more speedy work is noticeable later in this year and during the early part of grade 3.



Work of a fifth grade boy.



Attention to the details of beginning and finishing strokes, special connectives, and the general polish and fineness of handwriting without loss of speed, are the problems of grade six.

A Spring Salon in the Making

FRANCES H. PATTERSON

Director, Elementary French and Art, Oakwood-Dayton, Ohio

WHEN I see a group of today's children happily engaged in the manipulation of pencils, paints, crayons, clay, charcoal, linoleum, or wood, I always feel a little thrill of vicarious freedom in their experiences.

A generation ago, as a child in the public schools of a large American city, I experienced the best advantages that an advanced system had to offer. We had crayons, with which we copied the Perry color-prints of robins, bluebirds, and orioles. We used pencils for dictated lessons in the construction of "stick men." At this period, there was an especially impressive lesson in copying an Easter rabbit, clad in gay garments, from the teacher's drawing on the blackboard—that drawing which I know now must have been traced onto the board from a prepared stencil and colored in our absence for our astonished pleasure.

We modeled in clay, but our models were wooden cubes, and cylinders, and balls. We drew with charcoal, always from a model, perhaps a beautiful vase or well-shaped crock, but, to our eyes, only an object of unachievable symmetry.

And then came the absolutely bewildering experience in the fourth year, when the newly appointed Supervisor of Art Instruction came into our classroom carrying a Japanese lantern. It was a handsome one, its colors bright, its shape roundly even; we liked it. But, after the ceremonious distribution of paper and charcoal, the lovely lantern was rudely folded on one side, hung on a peg high up beside the door, and we were told to regard it carefully and draw the ellipses!

That day, any confidence I had ever felt in my own abilities, any hope that I might be able to draw creditably, definitely withered away.

But what a joyous change has taken

place since the beginning of the twentieth century! And how one can rejoice in observing the freedom of the modern child as he expresses his ideas and experiences through the various media of art.

One of the most delightful of our school events of last year was the Kindergarten art exhibit, a regular Spring Salon, the result of eight months' experience with paints. The kindergarten instructors introduced the materials for painting early in the year, with show-card colors, large wash brushes, plenty of newspaper, and several firmly constructed easels forming the equipment for this experience. In addition to the primary colors (each in light and dark shades), the children were given green, orange, brown, black, and white.

From the beginning, the proper care of their materials was impressed upon the children. They were taught that brushes should be carefully dipped into the paint in order not to waste it by unnecessary splattering on their clothing and the floor, that a brush too well filled with paint would result in paintings spoiled because of blurred and running colors.

The children were allowed free access to the painting materials and the appeal of the bright hues met a ready response. There was the usual period of experimentation during which the children delighted in playing with the facile new medium which they had discovered. They made trial daubs with the paints, meaningless patches of color, lines, circles, and then Teddy painted "The White Kitten and the Blue Plate"—a picture with a name! It was soon followed by "A Brown Kitten with a White Face" and "The Gingerbread Boy."

These three pictures were attractively mounted on backgrounds of brush manila paper, a crayon line outlining the panels

accentuating the predominant color of each. The names of the pictures were printed in large letters and placed beneath the pictures on the bulletin board. These printed titles were a stimulus in the development of interest in reading, and these first real "pictures" formed the nucleus of the extensive group which appeared at the Salon in May.

After the Christmas holidays, the enthusiasm for painting increased. All attempts to use the paints were encouraged and care was taken that each piece of work should be recognized and the young artist asked to "tell about his picture." In this way the naming of many of the pictures was achieved.

The work of the thirty-six members of the class was carefully recorded, and in May, a final tabulation of the results was made. All painting had been voluntary and it was noted with interest that only one child had failed to participate in the activity. (This tabulation showed the following results:)

This fine showing led to the decision to hold an exhibition of the paintings and a visitors' catalogue was prepared. The names of some of the pictures were changed by the class; others previously unnamed were given appropriate titles by popular vote. The titles were printed and attached to the mounted pictures.

The finished catalogue consisted of a list of the children's names and the titles of the pictures exhibited by each one. The Salon contained a showing of sixty-five paintings, representing at least one picture made by each of the children who had taken part in the enterprise.

The pictures covered a wide range of subjects, illustrations of favorite tales—Jack and Jill, Little Black Sambo, Humpy-Dumpty; familiar persons and places—Our Cabin on the Hill, The House Across from Ours, A Boy Leaning Against a Tree; imaginary scenes or objects—A Sun-

<i>Number of children</i>	<i>Number of creditable pictures achieved by each</i>
2	22
1	20
1	19
2	18
1	16
1	15
1	14
1	13
2	12
3	9
2	8
3	7
3	6
1	5
4	4
2	3
4	2
1	1
1	0
<hr/>	
36 children	194 pictures

The result of the tabulation.

set, A Boat on a Green Sea, The Wampus (surely never seen by man); and even a portrait, for John painted a picture of Bobby the day he wore his cowboy suit to school.

The paintings were assembled on the stage and walls of the school auditorium and invitations were issued to parents and friends as well as the members of other classes. The young artists were present to point out and explain their own work, proud of their own achievements. The enjoyment of the visitors who came to see the exhibit added to the importance of the undertaking in the eyes of the exhibitors, while the improvement in craftsmanship and the increase in ideas expressed during the school year were items of encouragement to their instructors.

Training Unafraid Teachers

ELIZABETH HEALY

Cooperative School for Student Teachers, 89 Bank Street, New York City

"WOULDN'T it be fun to be a child, so that you could begin school all over! I wish that we had had shop and trips and clay and creative writing when I was in the grades! My entire memory of school is that it was unreal. It didn't concern itself with anything that mattered to us as children." Such remarks are typical of visitors to the modern class room and suggest a wistfulness born of an understanding of the present-day educational approach.

When the visitors happen to be young people who wish to learn to teach, or teachers dissatisfied with their programs, the next comment usually is: "Where could I learn how to understand the philosophy of an experimental approach? What could I do to develop beyond my formal training so that I could see geography, arithmetic, painting, history, and civics as one 'subject' and not five? How can I divert an ill-spent youth into a valuable future?"

One answer to such queries is the Cooperative School for Student Teachers, in New York, which has just completed its second year. Though not established for the reclamation of aspiring students, it was established to fill a recognized demand for teachers whose experiences had been so enriched that they could help children know themselves, their world, and evaluate the relationship between them. Schools were asking for teachers who knew more than theory and the educational literature,—for teachers who knew more than techniques of discipline and school-room management. They recognized that the burden of all progress in curriculum and attitude is dependent on the class-room teachers.

If teachers are to know what creative expression is, they themselves must be creators. If teachers are to sense the ad-

venturous excitement of exploration, they must have uncovered new worlds. If teachers are to transmit the thrill of active participation as the essence of learning, they themselves must learn through participation. If teachers are to use techniques (and indeed they must), they must know children as well as content, or techniques are empty. Thus reasoned the staff of the Bureau of Educational Experiments during the past few years of its research and nursery school work. The demands from schools for abler teachers spurred the Bureau of Educational Experiments to action and resulted in the "Bank Street School,"—the colloquialism for the Cooperative School for Student Teachers.

A capacity enrollment in the first student group, cordial expressions of educational approval, and the interest of artists, economists, lawyers, public school superintendents, and others, all suggest the timeliness and need for new attacks on teacher training. No one knows better than the students themselves what it means to live "progressive education" on the adult level,—in order to grasp its attitudes and to teach. One student, speaking for the others, says:

"We are children in our freedom, in the gayety that bursts out in odd corners or all together, in the feeling that we can say anything that seems pertinent to us, in the way we admire each other's work, with the same simplicity that I've heard Billy tell Freddie in the eights' class: 'Gee, you do *good* drawings!'

"But we also are accorded the dignity of adulthood. . . . There is no coercion. We attend classes because we want to. We take them as a group, and even though some may not mean quite as much to certain individuals as others, there is a feeling that we want to stick together. We don't want to miss any of the group experiences. There are no

lists of prescribed reading, no marks, no proddings, no examinations. It is presumed that we are here because we want to be. . . . If anything, we get too thrilled over the worlds that open to us with each new week."

Only the unafraid child has a chance in our ever-changing world! We have no standard for a status quo for institutions or materials. We have no sign-posts against which the fearful aimless individual can lean for permanent support. The unafraid teacher has a rare educational gift to offer to the individual child, the group, and the social structure. One outstanding aspect of the Cooperative School work is the opportunity offered student teachers for a variety of experiences that release fears. The students glory in finding that their bodies are more capable than they suspected, and lose adult hesitations about trying new uses for their physical forces, in the dance, in carpentry, and in the finer skills of work with clay and paint. They discover meanings in unsuspected aspects of their environment, and find the city marvelous rather than noisy, the country significant rather than remote. They feel that they have gained courage and penetration in their work with children, through responsible class-room contacts and first-hand observation of children's interests and growth. They find that authority no longer binds them, whether it be abstract precedent, personal relationship or educational dogma, if the teachings of authority do not tie up the world they know through investigation. They experience the intellectual freedom and stimulation that is the product of relationship thinking. They gain in emotional tolerance by increased understanding of motivation, as well as by the sum of their professional experiences. They shed their anxieties about the complexities of life through a profound assimilation and through the expression of a vigorous, resourceful attack.

The men and women students at 69 Bank Street are a gallant group indeed. Some

have given up excellent teaching positions for a year of additional training; a few resigned from lucrative business jobs "in order to do something important." Many have come directly from the colleges, wanting "to do something that is real, something that uses all of your abilities." Some have come from the West Coast, and even more from the Middle West, for "a chance to live and understand the newer education, so that conviction as to techniques, programs and equipment will be based on experience rather than on some one's say-so." They came to seek rather than revolt; to probe rather than deny; to participate rather than observe. Despite their initial courage, when they now view themselves as they were eight months ago, they regard their former selves as typical Timid Souls!

The Cooperative School is cooperative in fact as well as in name. Perhaps it could not be otherwise as an offspring of a Bureau that had worked cooperatively on projects for fourteen years with Lucy Sprague Mitchell and Harriet M. Johnson. Students spend half of their time in class-rooms in one of eight schools,—public (the experimental section of P. S. 41, Manhattan) and private, institutional (Carson College for Orphan Girls, Flourtown, Pa.), co-educational boarding (Manumit, Pawling, N. Y., and Spring Hill, Litchfield, Conn.), city day (Livingston School, Staten Island, and the Bureau Nursery School, New York), suburban day (Rosemary Junior, Greenwich, Conn.), and country day schools (Mount Kemble, Morristown, N. J.). The directors of these cooperating schools share with a Central Staff, educational, administrative and financial plans for the Cooperative School. The directors of three schools give part time to the administrative and teaching staff, Jessie Stanton, Ellen Steele, Elsa Ueland. Although originally planned as an organic group, the full possibilities of such a situation were not realized until the teachers from these eight schools were the "students" of the first year, and until the

present student teachers indicated the varied possibilities of student-staff cooperation.

There is little danger of inbreeding resulting from the practice work in schools bound by similar educational attitudes, but adjusting to different social, economic and emotional situations, and from practice work in groups with an age range from two to thirteen years! There is little danger of smugness in training when the field work so overlaps the seminary and studio courses that artificial distinction between theory and practice are dissolved

by the set-up itself. The possibilities of growth can be conjectured, rather than measured, with advisors who are cooperators, not letter-head figures, as might be deduced from the following list: Frank Aydelotte, Alvin Johnson, William Heard Kilpatrick, Winifred Lenihan, Sara Patrick, Robert Sessions Woodworth and William Zorach.

The Bank Street School is experimental,—frankly so,—in ideas, programs, and relative values. It is experimenting with, rather than on students, and its contribution to education will be the product of a brave cooperative experiment.

Kindergarten-Primary Education at the University of Chicago

As part of the general reorganization under way at the University of Chicago practically all of the courses offered by the Department of Education are now graduate courses. The Department of Kindergarten-Primary Education, therefore, has been discontinued as an administrative unit, which means that there will be no further undergraduate work offered in Kindergarten-Primary Education. The graduate courses in this field will be continued within the Department of Education. This Department has in turn become a part of the Division of Social Sciences, one of the four senior college and graduate divisions of the University. Graduate courses in Education will be open, however, to undergraduate students who have had teaching experience and are otherwise qualified to carry these courses. Thus it will be possible for teachers with advanced standing to qualify for the bachelor's degree in the Social Science Division, including in their work courses in Kindergarten-Primary Education. Similarly, graduate students who are candidates for the master's degree in Education may include, as heretofore, courses in Kindergarten-Primary Education.

During the summer of 1932 there will be offered graduate courses in Kindergarten-Primary Education in the Social Studies, in Language Development, in Literature, in Supervision, and in Teacher Training. Demonstration classes for four, five, and six year old children will be in session during the first term of the summer. Professor May Hill of Western Reserve University, and Miss Kate Kelly, Director of Elementary Education, Des Moines, Iowa, as visiting instructors, together with regular members of the Department of Education and the Elementary School, will conduct the work. Miss Temple is retiring from the University in June of this year.

A First Grade Orientation Program

PAULINE G. STAATS

First Grade Training Supervisor, Cheney, Washington

In education it is not often that policies and procedures designed and used in connection with higher education are borrowed and adapted for use in the first grade.

This is perhaps the exception however that proves the rule. Survey courses, introductory courses, and orientation programs have been used for several years in connection with entering college freshmen. Freshmen week is planned on the assumption that the entering student is coming for the first time, into a new environment, a new world, and that he needs to be carefully introduced to these new situations in order that he may be started in the right direction in the shortest and most intelligent manner. During freshmen week the beginning student learns about the buildings, the campus, class schedules, assemblies and many, many other things.

If this program is worthwhile in setting the bewildered beginning college freshman on the right road, how much more worthwhile it must be to the much more bewildered child who is beginning his career in formal education for the first time. The following article describes an experimental program in orientation which we feel is very much worthwhile, and that this program is as vital to the first grade freshman as it is to the college freshman.

CLARK M. FRASIER,

*Director of Training School, State Normal School,
Cheney, Washington.*

W H E N school began last fall twenty-five children came for the first time to this school just as like groups came to similar schools here and there all over the world. Not any two of them were alike and yet they were all alike. They were entering upon a new kind of life,—a life in which each must become a giving and taking member of a larger group. Many things were to be new,—their group, other groups, their teacher, other teachers, their room, other rooms, the play-ground. They wanted to know at once who people were and what they did, where things were and what they were for, what each room contained and why. This group of children began very naturally upon what became a rather extensive orientation program. We wanted to find ourselves in our new environment and so we went a'visiting.

The need for a social science unit rose when the children played, those first few days, promiscuously here and there on the campus. They did not believe in signs. After class discussion, we visited the campus and found out just where we could and could not play and the reasons controlling the selection of places. After finding out what the first sign said the children enjoyed reading others and wanted to talk about the signs they had seen.

This led us on to other visits until we planned a series which took about three weeks but which is still leading on. We began in our own rooms. We found we had two rooms to call our very own, one, a class room; the other, an activity room. Starting at the fireplace, we examined the individual lockers, peeked into the books on the library table, admired the conduct borders, enjoyed the bulletin

boards, became excited about the contents of the Children's Cupboard, tried the tables, chairs, blackboards, and new work materials, besides wanting to read all the Primers in the bookcases at once. We found out where we were to put all our wraps when the weather became cold and rubbers and mittens were necessary. From here we proceeded to the first grade office to see where our teachers worked.

The next day was a red letter day. We visited the Director of the School and discovered, pleasantly, that he was not at all like the person some would-be-jokers tried to tell us he would be. He shook hands with each one and invited us back again at anytime.

too. We had been used to seeing them at home. Visiting the cheerful lunch room, the new playroom, the library, and the auditorium completed our orientation in this building and we were ready to stroll further afield.

Next we visited the "Big School," the College Administration building. Laboratory, classroom, gymnasium, library, auditorium opened their doors with kindly, smiling hosts and hostesses inside to explain some things to us. Some day we planned that we would go back and give a play for the "Big School" on the big stage. The natural science teacher was not in, but we were so fascinated by his laboratory that we planned to return.



We visited the Director of the School and he shook hands with each one and invited us back again at anytime.

When we visited the second grade, we were envious of their superior ability to read and write. The third graders took a picture from their own bulletin board and gave it to us because we thought it looked like "Woof," about whom we were reading. We made up an interesting story about him. The fourth, fifth, and sixth grades were all interesting. We especially enjoyed sitting in their seats which they so gladly vacated for us. Finding our brothers and sisters in the various rooms of the building was exciting but a bit strange,

Later we did write a letter asking when we might come. When we returned, he opened case after case of interesting specimens for us to see. We especially liked the Domestic Science laboratory. We will return there to make Gingerbread Boys when we have open house for our new playhouse. The coach, one of our Dads, took us through the gymnasium and swimming pool. We want to return when there are people swimming. He has promised to tell us when we may come. The big library is nice, but we still prefer our own

with its lovely picture books and helpful librarian. The penmanship instructor wrote on the board for us and admired the writing we did on his board for him. With regret, we left the building with many new ideas and not a little curiosity satisfied.



We visited a lovely home close to the campus and studied the furniture. Then we were ready to plan the furniture for our own doll house.

The manual arts building was especially fascinating to the boys but very interesting to the girls, with its strange machines that printed, cut wood, molded tin, and sharpened saws. What a great many tools we saw, and we all wanted the attractive doll's house and nursery rhyme wall decorations in one room.

Our room had been filled with lovely fall flowers. It was quite natural that we wanted to visit the greenhouse and gardens and to thank the gardener. We saw some of the winter boxes of plants being prepared and found out that those interesting little animals called turtles had their home in the greenhouse.

By this time the playhouse we were building for Dolly Dimples was well on the way toward being ready to furnish. We wanted to see a home to get ideas for our house. We made arrangements to visit a lovely one close to the campus. A



We wrote a story of our visits and put it in a book which is illustrated.

gracious hostess met us at the door and we had our experience in calling. When we came away we were ready to build our furniture.



We visited the gardens.

Our visiting proved so popular we decided to make a record of our trips. We wrote together a story called "Visiting," in which we told the especially interesting points of our trips. This book is illustrated and we still enjoy it. The stories in it were published week by week in the *Booster*, our school paper.

Guidance in a Twenty-Four Hour Nursery School

GERTRUDE PORTER DRISCOLL

Resident Psychologist, Institute of Euthenics, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York

DURING the summer of 1931, there were twenty-two children in the nursery school whose ages ranged from two years to four and one-half, whose parents were attending the Institute of Euthenics, Vassar College. No child is accepted unless accompanied by a parent, since the Institute is not essentially a child caring institution but rather a parent education program. The staff of the nursery school included a pediatrician, a nutritionist, a psychologist, a trained nurse and several well trained nursery school teachers who cared for the children during the night as well as the day time. This last plan was a departure from that of previous years but was in every way a successful one and will be continued in the future. Parents have daily contacts with the children; every effort is made to have the transition from parent to teacher brought about slowly and with as little shock to the child as possible. Although there are tears and temper tantrums when first the parents take their temporary leave of the children, it is not many days before the children accept the routine calmly. Sometimes it takes the parent longer than the child to become adjusted to the separation but, before the end of the Institute, even the most anxious parent is willing to leave her child while she skips off to New York for the day.

For six weeks the mother will have the opportunity of learning about the general development of children. She learns the present needs of her child and those he will have a few years from now so that she will be prepared to understand them and to meet them wisely. Perhaps the greatest help the mother receives is to observe her child among other children of his age when the child is unconscious of her observation. Needless to say the

mother does not spend her entire time watching her child but is following interests which she has been forced to drop during the first few years of her child's life. She is reawakening to the intellectual and artistic life around her.

In the twenty-four hour set up there are many opportunities for the teacher to learn. Here are activities found in the nursery school and also all the activities found in the home. How may John's mood on awakening be controlled? How shall the morning routine be planned in order to help John become more independent but taking into account his motility and mood? How much may we hope to change habits in a six weeks' period? These are questions propounded at staff meeting. To find the answer in terms of the needs of the individual child is challenging. Then there are the children. They are dependent upon adults to provide for their needs. To help him through life good habits of sleeping, eating, elimination are necessary. They need direction in securing independence in routine habits, initiative and self-direction and techniques for living with other children. How does the staff adapt the twenty-four hour plan to provide a stimulus for individual development?

The question of routine is an ever-present one. The aim is to have the child become progressively independent in the matters of dressing, bathing, toileting, etc., but the problem of time cannot be ignored. Guidance in routine continued to be prominent throughout the six weeks of the summer Institute of 1931. How best could baths be managed and how much should the child be able to do for himself in the bath when time had to be considered were other pressing questions. Values had to be weighed and the best answer for the individual child sought.

The problem of sleep was also prominent. Having established the environmental conditions most conducive of the maintenance of good sleeping habits, it was necessary to adopt a schedule which best suited the child's needs. Before bedtime the children played quietly in their rooms or had a story; comfortable physical surroundings were provided, each child having a bedroom to himself; when the child was ready for sleep the mother came to say good night if parent and teacher decided it advisable; at 4 A. M. shades were drawn and doors closed so that the awakening of one child would not affect the others.

During the first few days the bed hour was delayed with the hope that the children would go to sleep more quickly than was habitual as noted on the individual histories. As some fatigue was noticed, the bed hour was pushed forward. The records show that many of the children varied in the length of time required to go to sleep, though there were a few who remained consistently high and some who habitually fell asleep immediately. The group from 3-4½ years of age usually remained awake a long time but the bed hour continued to be the same as it was felt that the child was resting though sleeping was deferred.

In the beginning the teacher assumed the responsibility for the child's night toilet needs. The teacher continued to assume the responsibility of awakening the child under three years of age, but gradually these children assumed more and more responsibility in attending to their needs independent of the teacher. Children above three years of age who were still dependent upon someone to awaken them were gradually helped to assume this responsibility themselves. As a rule accidents were rare for children above three years. In one instance only, and that of an older child, was it deemed advisable to withhold liquids.

One clearly defined problem in sleep was unsolved at home and proved difficult to correct in six weeks. Bobby was thirty

months old and had a history of wakening himself several times each night and crying for long periods of time. His behavior at the Institute followed the same pattern and because of its complexity several methods had to be tried before one proved successful. Among the possible causes were desire for attention, feeling of insecurity and need for the toilet. Methods designed to eliminate each one of these causes followed each other successively until the satisfactory plan was hit upon. The teacher slept nearby, thus offering security to the child, and an adjacent toilet enabled him to care for his own needs during the night without adult attention. When Bobby awakened and started to cry the teacher would say, without moving out of bed, "All right, Bobby, the bathroom door is open."

Whereupon, Bobby would stop crying, climb out of bed, go to the bathroom, attend to his needs and start back to his room. The teacher would call a cheerful good night as he went past her door.

Eating difficulties yield readily to the regimen possible under the twenty-four hour plan because the eating situation can be so thoroughly controlled. Consistency of treatment, control of food intake, adequate activity and high standards of health work together to build up satisfactory eating habits. In general appetites were noticeably good and weight gains were made by every child, even those who had previously been underweight. Progress was made on two distinct food problems, one a child of four who had a consistent history of regurgitation, the other a four year old child who had many food dislikes.

Betty was a thin, undernourished looking little girl of four. She regurgitated food when under any strain. She was normally a slow eater and, when it was necessary for her to hurry with her meal, regurgitation always resulted. Both parents were apprehensive over this problem and were very conscious of the child's underweight. As one would expect, Betty regurgitated prunes when she realized that she was expected to eat them before get-

ting her cereal. The situation was treated in the matter of fact way common in most nursery schools and breakfast was concluded for the morning. Regurgitation was resorted to only two other times, these occasions being during the first week of her attendance at the nursery school. By the third week she was eating heartily, though slowly. During the six weeks of the Institute she showed a two pounds gain in weight. The transfer from school was prepared for by having the mother first observe, then partake of meals with Betty in the nursery school.

Josephine was a child with very decided ideas, many of them revolving about choice of foods. At home there had been no success in attempting to "force her" to eat all foods. A policy of denying favorite foods was never adhered to consistently in the home. By ignoring her bids for attention and requiring that one course be completed before the next could be had, Josephine chose to eat her meal peaceably if not always happily. Many food dislikes had disappeared before the end of the six weeks as far as behavior could be noted.

The problem of elimination looms large in a program of twenty-four hour care of small children, but there is scarcely justification for the anxiety displayed by most parents over the establishment of proper habits of elimination. In general it could be said that bowels functioned normally as soon as the initial adjustment to change in water and food had been made. Regular rhythm had been established in practically all cases before the children left, though it was far from the case when they came.

Two types of children found it most difficult to adjust to the group toilet procedure, that is, adjusting to having more than one toilet in a room. The inhibited child (even at two years of age there were distinct inhibitions in this situation) found it impossible to have a bowel movement when other children were present.

When allowed to be in the toilet alone the function was performed normally. The same difficulty occurred with the easily diverted child. This would indicate the advisability of having toilets for little children more private, for it seems an unnecessary adjustment to require the child to be social in this situation.

The health record of the nursery school was particularly gratifying during the 1931 Institute. Several basic rules formed the policy for health care. Signs of fatigue in both adults and children were carefully noted and action was taken to relieve the cause. During the periods of hottest weather, the amount of liquids was kept up to the maximum by regularizing the time and amount of liquid consumed. Also, in hot weather no child was urged to eat beyond the amount he spontaneously desired to eat. Perhaps the greatest safeguard of all was the immediate isolation for a runny nose or rash. With these four principles kept in mind the health record is indeed an excellent one.

From the foregoing discussion it can be seen that the problems arising in a twenty-four hour nursery school are similar to those which confront any nursery school teacher. The ultimate solution of these problems is more hopeful due to the fact that the total situation is under control and the parents are near at hand for frequent conferences and participation. We thus have not only correct habit formation for the child but function learning on the part of the parent, also.

Another way in which the twenty-four hour plan helps the parent in the solution of the child's problems is by relieving the mother of the daily care of the child. She is then enabled to see others faced with her problems and to watch how they attack them.

Thus, by having the parent in the set up where she is able to watch the development of the good habit which is replacing the problem, we have an ideal situation for guidance of parent and child.

The Group-at-Play

JUANITA STAPP

Principal, Hyde Park School for Little Children, Chicago, Illinois

A n interesting plan, suggested by an understanding mother, was executed by an experienced director of children's activities and two assistants (students) at Chicago Teachers College for six weeks during the summer.

An invitation was issued to all the children in the Demonstration School to join a summer play group. When seventeen mothers of children between the ages of three and eight responded to the invitation, the Group-at-Play sprang into being.

The attractive school and college building and the spacious grounds together with our proximity to Lincoln Park afforded ample opportunities for much worth-while play activity.

Since the aim of the Group-at-Play was to offer happy healthful and valuable play experiences to children from city apartments, some very definite program was carried out in order that the youngest as well as the oldest child would derive the maximum of benefit from the play hours.

The first hour each morning was given over entirely to self-directed play. The swings, slides, teeters, bars, sandbox, climbing apparatus, large building blocks, etc., offered untold opportunities for both individual and group play. During this hour the director and her assistants made themselves as inconspicuous as possible but

were carefully and constantly supervising, occasionally suggesting, and sometimes, when occasions demanded, redirecting destructive play impelled along constructive lines. What a wonderful opportunity that was to observe and, in a measure, help to train seventeen little citizens-in-the-making! The retiring and timid members of the group needed encouragement and commendation; the aggressive members needed to learn the valuable lesson of cooperation and unselfishness; the passive and static child became enthused and interested and soon found himself participating in activities he had never before been a part of; the too phlegmatic and scholarly child found healthful enjoyment in outdoor sports and skills.

At 10:00 o'clock the entire group came together very informally for a mid-morning luncheon of orange juice. This part of the day's program furnished an opportunity for a quiet and courteous social period. At the close of this short session the cups and pitchers had to be washed and the tables wiped off and set again for the next day. Here we found a perfectly natural outlet for a bit of house keeping, or, to use the newer phraseology, homemaking. Real joy was usually manifested in the privilege of dish washing. What did it matter that a few cups were broken when such valuable



While one group was at the beach another group was busily engaged in some planned activity at the school or in the park. We often painted pictures at large easels.

lessons as carefulness, cleanliness, cooperation, and order were learned.

Then came what seemed to the children to be the most enjoyable hour. Each day a group dressed in sun suits or bathing suits started off to the beach—and such a beach as it was for some far-seeing park official had had the foresight to plan a beach especially for the little children. Out in glorious Lake Michigan about half a block from the shore was a fence extending for at least a block. Here the tiniest three-year-old could be safely turned loose for at the deepest point the water was only his waist deep. Such a glorious place for safe adventure with scarcely a cause for a "don't." However, the sense of safety on the part of director and the children was further strengthened by the constant presence of a friendly life guard who truly had the interest of the tiny tot at heart. And such tunnels, wells, castles, mountains, valleys, river



Out in Lake Michigan about half a block from shore was a fence extending a short distance. Here the tiniest three-year-old could be safely turned loose for at the deepest point the water was only up to his waist.

beds, etc., as took form under skillful tiny hands. The sun baths on the grassy slope near the beach afforded another splendid social time while the children put on their shoes and waited for their suits to dry.

We had early felt the need of bath houses at the school and so we had built them with the large building blocks. Many a member of the group actually learned to dress and undress for the first time and experienced genuine satisfaction in the accomplishment.

The beach hour was always followed by a rest period. Each child lay down on a collapsible canvas cot for about twenty minute rest period. Real development was noted here, too, for rigid muscles so evident in the beginning of our days together became relaxed. The lesson of learning how to rest was, therefore, in itself a valuable experience.

The rest period was followed by a story time. Sometimes the story was told or read by the director or an assistant and often a child was the story teller. This was encouraged not only for the language experience it offered but also for the natural opportunity for development in poise and self confidence.

The last half hour was again a free play time though the more quiet activities were encouraged. Those old enough to read often found books and curled up in some cool shady corner to read or look at pictures. During some of these periods by means of large printed charts a complete record of our good times together was made. Each chart was illustrated by means of snap shots taken of the children in their various activities. This all served to satisfy the reading interest of some and also to awaken the same interest in others.

While one group was at the beach another group was busily engaged in some planned activity at the school or in the park. We blew soap bubbles, we made a garden, we built block cities, we made fans, doilies for the orange juice tables, we painted pictures at large easels. we visited the zoo, we played under lawn sprays, we walked through the beautiful park gardens, we made interesting objects in clay to be painted later—in fact we felt the time all too short to do the many things we wanted to do.

During the last two weeks we were look-

ing forward to the closing party to which we were to invite our mothers. This preparation called for decorated napkins, invitations, table mats, candy cups, place cards, etc. And the day of the party we set the tables, made the sandwiches (with much teacher help) and prepared the salad. One rainy day we made orange marmalade to be put away (after generously sampling it) for the party.

Our party offered the opportunity we feel should never be neglected when conditions are favorable—that of thinking of less fortunate children. With this in mind, our guests were invited to pay a small fee for their luncheon and this money was welcomed by the Infant Welfare Society for its milk fund.

Another lovely opportunity was offered the children in the person of an assistant who loved to read favorite poems and bits of verse to them. Whenever interest in free play lagged or the day seemed too

warm for much strenuous play, the children, sometimes individuals and often the group, sought the cool room where they could become better acquainted with Milne, Rosetti, Fyleman, Stevenson, Aldis, Bennett or other child favorites. This interest warranted an informally planned

program of verse the day of our party. Many a mother was delightfully surprised to see the enthusiasm and poise displayed by a small son or daughter as he or she stood during the luncheon and recited a favorite rhyme or bit of verse—carefully telling the name of the author.

It would be difficult to enumerate the benefits we felt each child derived from his hours spent with the Group-at-Play. Dr. Frederick Bonser has made the statement that "The purpose of education is the control of conduct." We heartily believe that our Group-at-Play fulfilled many of the requirements of this newer and better education.

Song for a Summer Day

Does anybody
Want to go with me
Vagabonding in the sun?

Down a little road,
Climb a rock fence,
Knock down a rock,
Put back a rock,
Run across a meadow,
Lie on a haystack,
Just be lazy in the sun.

Does anybody
Want to go with me
Vagabonding in the sun?

Rebecca Cushman

Open Sesame

NANNETTE LEVIN

Supervisor of Primary Grades, Baltimore, Maryland

AT the risk of being trite I must say that it is bringing coals to New Castle to impress upon a group such as this the importance of books as a part of classroom equipment.

That reading habits begin long before definite skills are acquired is well known to us. To the child whose home is rich in reading material, whose handling of books begins in infancy—the environment of the school room serves to carry on and to amplify interests already formed as well as to add new ones.

Before the school age—even before the kindergarten or nursery school age—we find children interested in books and pictures. The very young daughter of a physician who enjoyed the freedom of her father's library aired a surprising amount of knowledge gained from browsing through his illustrated technical books. A youngster of my acquaintance was asked what he wanted for his approaching fifth birthday. "Don't give me a book," said he. "My aunt gives me nice ones!" Is it cheap and facile optimism to think that this child had already some idea of good taste in the selection of reading material?

The modern school room is rich in suggestive material—the entire environment is alive with stimulating media whereby the child may grow and grow aright. There is opportunity for the development of all types of children and of a variety of interests. One of the most vital contributors to such a school situation is the way in which books are handled. No longer is the book the repository for knowledge to be automatically transferred to the child. It is a medium whereby experiences become his own—vicariously. Since all experience can not be gained at first hand, books play an important role in amplifying and clarifying the child's ideas.

One phase through which all children must pass is that of handling books. There is the sheer joy of holding a book, of turning pages, of examining the pictures closely, of deducing what the "story" is about, possibly wondering what the accompanying black symbols have to do with the matter and finally coming to realize (through observing others read, no doubt) that therein lies another phase of interpretation. This handling phase, I believe, we never outgrow. Do we not ourselves tackle each new book in just that way—glancing at the end first (if it be fiction and we females), noting how much dialogue there be (if any), what illustrations, etc. A large part of the child's time needs be occupied in just that way. This does not, however, imply degeneration into careless habits.

The child who lives in an atmosphere of books need not become "bookish." We are careful to note that he does not sit reading for too lengthy a period, that he participates in class or group activity—that he has outlet for his physical energy—that he is not shut off in a world of make-believe. Books are part of the world he lives in—good friends with whom he loves to spend pleasant moments—who await and welcome him.

Little children are content with looking at pictures and "reading" the story they tell. In a kindergarten recently a child brought a book to school and expressed a desire to "read" it to the class. She was allowed to do this. The book was small, the pictures were small, the girl was, too. She showed each picture and told about it at great length, omitting no detail. The mechanics of holding the book and of turning the pages was remarkable for so wee a mite. The class was spell-bound. When she had finished, a boy said

to the teacher. "Now you read it." The understanding teacher replied, "I don't believe I could read it a bit better than Jean did. She told us everything."

The child who has handled and enjoyed books realizes that there are more skills to be mastered (in order that he get fuller enjoyment from them). The teaching of reading to such children is already motivated—they *want* to read, and are willing to work in order to gain their end. Books in the school room are as vital a part of the equipment as the desks and other furniture. More so, I believe. In rooms where books are utilized to their fullest extent, the care of them presents no great problem, for there is a strong need to preserve these books, not, however, to the extent of keeping them new and fresh and untouched on the shelves. A book well thumbed is a book enjoyed.

No longer (in the modern schoolroom) is reading limited to the reading period which often in the past represented real drudgery. There are precious moments to be seized before school, during the work period, at lunch time, and in the regular library time. Books are always accessible whether for information or enjoyment. Not only are the regular readers (and a variety of these) on hand, but each class has its library—where interesting material (well chosen as to print, illustration and binding) is to be found. Comfortable chairs and a table give a natural atmosphere to the library corner. Good library habits are formed and developed here.

It is but a step from the classroom library to the school library and the public library. The latter, with its increased facilities for cooperation with the public school, now places at our disposal books suitable for the youngest children. So great did the interest in books and reading grow in a second grade class several years ago that a boy on being refused a library card of his own (because he was under age) forced his mother (who was not a member of the Public Library) to take out a card, so that he might use it.

The mother made a visit to the school and proudly told this to the teacher. The books borrowed from the library by this boy were greatly enjoyed by the class, as he generously allowed them to remain in the class library for the period of two weeks. Often these books contained stories familiar to the children. This only added zest to their reading, for children do not object to the repetition of favorites. They are quick to check upon any differences either in characters or detail. The visiting of public libraries by children and the helpful guidance furnished by librarians and teachers must have caused a change in the rules in Baltimore, for last year in a second grade class a surprising number of children proudly exhibited library cards of their own!

The teacher's reference books, too, are no longer holy ground to the inquiring child. All that he need remove in order to approach them are the smudges from his fingers. A boy with accelerated reading ability had been using a geography book in order to gain some information on the subject of wheat, which the class was studying at the time. When he was ready to report to the group, the teacher stood near in order that the pronunciation of difficult words would not impede the flow of his thought. Turning around and seeing her, this 7-year-old said, "You can sit down. I know all the words!"

For children whose native environment and experimental background is pitifully meagre, a schoolroom in which books abound is more than a necessity. We must give to these starved and limited lives vision beyond the confines of their own. Such love and tenderness have been lavished on school books—often the only books known—by these children; such bitter tears have been shed when "my baby tore my book." The charming little foreign mother who attended night school so that she might be able to read the books brought home by her little boys—so that she would not be thought stupid by them—she who was well versed in her own

language will linger long in our memories.

The importance of the physical make-up of books has been well established. The size of type—width of spacing—kind of paper used—arrangement of lines—size and kind of illustrations—colors used both for illustrations and cover, the size of the book itself to insure comfort in holding have all been given much consideration. Abundant material is now on the market which takes into account these points of emphasis so that it is no longer necessary to utilize reading matter which might cause even the slightest degree of physical discomfort.

In the field of picture books high standards have been achieved. A glance at recent lists of publications reveals books of real charm with illustrations of artistic worth. Hence cheap and unworthy books need find no place in our classroom libraries. If we are to give even the nursery school child the fundamentals of good taste, we must ourselves exercise that attribute in our selection of the reading materials to which he is to be exposed.

As to the content of books for young children—I am sure your offices are deluged (as are ours) with book salesmen each loudly declaring that the books of his publishing house are the last word in scientific arrangement. Books are now being written by students of the subject. Children's interests and activities furnish the basis of the reading content; factual material occupies a place beside the fanci-

ful. Books of real information relating to the social and natural sciences, familiar stories and beloved poems—all are represented. Scientific word lists are constantly being checked and classroom experimentation forms a large part of the basis for selection of reading materials used in the new children's books. In short, most of us are fortunate in having a wealth of material to try out and from which to select what is interesting, valuable and enjoyable for each type of child.

Reading is not a skill apart—it functions in almost every phase of the child's school activity and in his daily life. In former days, we learned how to read and then we were given something to read. Now the child has so much to read—he feels the need of reading—so (with the proper assistance) he reads.

*"There is no frigate like a book
To bear us lands away
Nor any charger like a page
Of prancing poetry."*

To open to the child all the vistas this implies—to let him enter into his heritage of romance and knowledge, of fact and fancy—to bring him into contact with the great minds of all the ages—to have him realize—in however slight a degree—the unending and inexhaustible fields which lie at his command once he possesses the magic key that unlocks these treasures—is the place of books in the schoolroom.

Pendulums

FRANK EYRE

The trees sway to and fro
Like an inverted row
Of pendulums.
"Tick, tock. Tick, tock."

Alice Temple

IN 1909, the University of Chicago chose Miss Alice Temple to organize and direct its new department of kindergarten-primary education. Indeed, it was due to Miss Temple that this work was organized on the unified kindergarten-primary basis when most training centers were still giving isolated courses for the kindergarten. Now, June, 1932, marks not only Miss Temple's retirement from this field which she has made notable, but also the termination of the department itself as an undergraduate training center.

To the hundreds of graduates of this division of education which was affectionately referred to as "Miss Temple's department" this announcement cannot but come as a matter of extreme regret. In days when Liberal Arts colleges could look down upon much inferior work in departments of education, Miss Temple put the stamp of sound scholarship upon work in the kindergarten-primary field. From the beginning, she preached and practiced the unification of the kindergarten and the primary grades. The result was that the curriculum and methods at each of these levels were subjected to the scientific scrutiny of laboratory research.

Later Miss Temple carried her efforts for unification into the International Kindergarten Union when from 1926 to 1927, she was president of that organization. The merging of kindergarten and primary interests did not come at that time, but Miss Temple gave impetus to the movement which has since resulted in the formation of the Association for Childhood Education, representing the union of kindergarten and primary education in this country.

Miss Temple's retirement from the department which she created and developed means inevitably her emergence into the other work. Meanwhile, her students and colleagues wish to record their sense of obligation to Miss Temple for her rich contributions to education.

Her book, "Unified Kindergarten and First Grade Teaching," written in collaboration with Samuel Chester Park, marked a sane beginning in the analysis of classroom procedures. Her department was unfailingly hospitable to obscure young women afflicted with professional growing pains. To such students Miss Temple gave of herself generously. She gave counsel, so sound in its judgment, so clear and impersonal in its advice that the student could go her way and stand on her own feet, stronger for this experience.

The work of Miss Temple's department has influenced kindergarten-primary practice throughout the United States. If the hallmark of a great teacher is one who can inspire her students with an eager desire to experiment and weigh results and a keen impartial attack on new problems, then Miss Temple is a great teacher for she herself is the possessor of these qualities.

MAY HILL.

THE WHITE HOUSE
WASHINGTON

May 2, 1932.

My dear Miss Abbot:

I will be obliged if you will express my cordial greetings to the Convention of the Association for Childhood Education, and my warm appreciation of their devoted work in behalf of the young children of our Nation. What they shall become will determine the character of our civilization and will shape the course of our national destiny. No more sacred obligation rests on us than to see that they are equipped to meet their responsibilities with sound bodies, developed minds and high ideals.

Yours faithfully,

Herbert Hoover

Miss Julia Wade Abbot,
President,
Association for Childhood Education,
1201 Sixteenth Street N. W.,
Washington, D. C.

NEWS FROM HEADQUARTERS

MARY E. LEEPER

CONVENTION KEYNOTE

Catharine Watkins, supervisor in Washington, D. C., and General Chairman of the local convention committees, in her welcome to the delegates on the opening night of the convention called attention to the spirit of "a searching for wise counsel" that would lead to professional growth which she hoped would pervade the Convention, in these words: "Nineteen years ago I had the pleasure of welcoming, to the National Capital, the members of the International Union. Since that time changes have come that are incident to growth and expansion. Our new name, Association for Childhood Education, indicates the wider field which our work embraces at present. • • • It has been said that wisdom lies in a multitude of counsellors; it is my earnest hope that wisdom may indeed preside in our conferences and guide us toward the solution of some of our problems."

As we evaluate the instruction and the inspiration which the various leaders and speakers brought to us, we are confident that this search for "wise counsel" was indeed stimulating to professional growth.

ALL STATES' NIGHT

In the past the playtime of the convention has been known as Delegates' Day. This year it was All States' Night. Under the capable direction of Fannie A. Smith, a charter member of the organization and, at present, one of its Vice-Presidents, delegates from twenty-one states presented, in chronological order, tableaux of events of historical interest. From the glories of the past our thoughts were led to the opportunities of the future in the final tableau given by the teachers of the District of Columbia, an interpretation of the poem by Vachel Lindsey which is a call to youth to "build a nation where Wonder is the deep of it and Peace its best creation."

To all those participating in the tableaux, and to Miss Smith, we gratefully acknowledge our thanks for an evening filled with thought provoking content and unusual beauty.

AMENDMENTS ADOPTED

Subscribers to CHILDHOOD EDUCATION will

be interested to know that the report of the Committee on Amendments, Ella Ruth Boyce, Chairman, was unanimously adopted at the business meeting held on Saturday morning.

This magazine will now follow the custom of most of the other educational magazines by publishing nine issues each year.

Article VII of the A. C. E. Constitution will now read as follows:

"Section 1. The Association shall establish and maintain a Journal having nine issues, yearly. This Journal shall be the official organ of the corporation. The Editor shall be approved by the Executive Board and shall conduct the Journal in co-operation with such committees as the President, with the approval of the Executive Board, may determine.

"Section 2. The official report of the organization and two publications shall be sent yearly to all individual members, to the President and Secretary of each branch organization, the members of the Executive Board and the chairmen of standing committees."

COMMENTS OVERHEARD

"I never knew, until after our visit to the Office of Education and hearing Dr. Cooper's talk to us, just how useful the Office of Education could be to a classroom teacher."

"Yes, I liked the Group Conferences but they didn't last long enough."

"I wrote home to tell them that I had my picture taken with President Hoover."

From an Exhibitor: "The delegates to this convention certainly are in earnest. When a meeting is being held, they are all right there."

"That trip to Mount Vernon, as the guests of the Washington teachers, was worth the trip from California."

"I surely am glad that at last I know what 1201 Sixteenth Street looks like."

"Did you meet the delegate from Porto Rico, Josefita Monserrate? She is Director of the Primary Department of the University of Port Rico."

"A summer meeting, and in Denver! Won't we have a good time at the 1933 Convention?"

CONVENTION DELEGATES



President Hoover receiving members of the Association for Childhood Education convening
Mesopotamia, Japan and Porto Rico

"The local community is the unit of responsibility in American public life. The sum of progress in the local communities is the sum of national progress. When this progress springs from the community itself we have not only progress in the protection of child life, but the reinforcement of the foundations upon which our society must rest. It is our purpose to assist."

PRESIDENT HOOVER



in Washington, D. C., for the Thirty-Ninth Annual Convention. Twenty-nine States, were represented. May 4-7, 1932.

evening
Rico

"We can give to the succeeding generation a vast equipment in plant and machinery, a great store of knowledge of how to run it, and we can leave for their stimulation centuries of art and literature. But the world will march forward only so far as we give to our children strength of body, integrity of character, training of mind and the inspiration of religion."

PRESIDENT HOOVER

BOOK REVIEWS

Editor, ALICE TEMPLE

Industrial arts for beginners.—Inasmuch as there have been few recent publications on the subject of beginning teaching of art and handwork by people of recognized prominence in this field, a recent book¹ by Ella Victoria Dobbs will be very welcome.

The first chapter, which deals with what is to be taught, how it shall be taught and why certain subject matter shall be selected or certain method used, is an excellent summary of the factors that all teachers should have in mind if they are dealing with these types of activities. There is a very good discussion of the proper balance between free expression and the development of skill and also of the differentiation between creativity and self-expression in this chapter.

The succeeding chapters deal with particular phases of drawing and handwork such as, "Picture Making," "Pictures in Three Dimensions," "Work With Clay," etc. The final chapters deal briefly with "Special Days," "School Exhibits" and "School Entertainments." The book contains many illustrations both of children at work and of articles in the process of construction and completed articles. There is a list of materials in the last chapter which may be most suggestive to teachers who have not as yet realized the possibilities of scrap materials in manual arts and who are still thinking that they would like to have such work going on in their classrooms if they had sufficient material furnished them. Miss Dobbs says, in the introduction of this chapter on materials, "Worth while handwork is not so much a matter of equipment and materials as it is a matter of resourcefulness, ingenuity and willingness to make the most of conditions."

It would seem that this book might be especially useful to teachers who are not very original and ingenious and therefore feel the need of very concrete and specific suggestions. However, there is stimulation in much of the

material for all people who deal with little children along these lines.

OLGA ADAMS,
University of Chicago.

Sage counsel this.—The characteristics of Dr. Burnham's latest volume, *The Wholesome Personality*,¹ are not dissimilar to those of his previous publications. His attention in the field of mental hygiene has always been focused on the common difficulties of the normal individual both young and old, on prevention rather than cure, and upon the homely everyday experiences rather than upon dramatic crises. The synthesizing concepts of the new text, such as integration, moreover, show little modification or development upon those expounded earlier. The contributions of the present volume, hence, are largely in the form of practical details. Even allowing for no small amount of repetition, one may judge from the work's 713 pages how extensive are these details.

The specific nature of the content of the book may be illustrated by the following enumeration of a few of the eighteen chapter headings: The Background of Personality, The Development of the Ego, Unconscious Attitudes, The Wholesome Personality, Disintegrating Conditions, Fear and the Personality Mental Conflicts, Survivals and Pitfalls, The Renaissance of Personality, and The Genetic Point of View. It is clear from this array that the psychological rather than psychiatric or physiological point of view dominated the author in his selection of materials. The discussions, furthermore, apply to persons of all ages, a very nice contribution being made to the mental hygiene of old age as well as to that of childhood.

The sources upon which drafts have been made are varied, indeed, the work of German investigators being conspicuous among the citations. Quotations abound—in fact, to such an extent, one finally gains the impression he is

¹Ella Victoria Dobbs. *First Steps in Art and Hand-work.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932. Pp. xiii 241.

¹William H. Burnham, *The Wholesome Personality: A Contribution to Mental Hygiene.* New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1932. Pp. xv + 713.

three steps removed from most of the happenings of interest. The tone of much of the discussion, accordingly, suggests that of a secure, impersonal spectator rather than that of a direct participant in the affairs. With a tolerance everywhere in evidence, the author culls understandingly from the writings of investigators. Sometimes he even appears to accept the offerings of others too uncritically. Busemann's (p. 19) interpretations, for example, in regard to the question of optimal family size and composition for school success are not dissected with a view to exposing the probable rôle of selective factors in the data trends. Watson's (p. 17) doctrine regarding three primary emotions is offered with no questions. Spearman, even though the discussion is favorable to him, might wince a bit at the following statement: "To attempt any account of the different factors that make up human personality is rash in the extreme; and yet in all practical social functions,—we refer every day multitudes of times to such factors as intelligence, conscientiousness, judgment, egoism, altruism, and the like, in our companions and acquaintances."

The simplest and safest plan perhaps is to adopt some general theory, like that of Spearman, for example, of not more than two factors, one a factor specific to each separate ability, one a factor general to all abilities; and perhaps one might venture to go still farther and regard each of these two factors as a form of energy underlying all the elements of a personality." (p. 23)

So fearful does the author seem of dealing too harshly with the works of others, he tends, when he ventures to criticize unfavorably, to present his objections at a point somewhat removed from his exposition of the investigator's point of view. The result, I fear, is that not as much vigorous questioning is stimulated as might be.

When one closes the volume, it is with a feeling that there is little rush in Burnham's world, that the author lives in accordance with his philosophy, that his is a ripe wisdom, and that others have faired well at his hands. What greater tribute could one pay a man? A work which expresses such a spirit must profit its readers.

HELEN L. KOCH,
University of Chicago.

Character education.—Miss Amelia McLesster's book² is a concise, well organized hand-

book on character education, offering practical, though necessarily limited, illustrations, uncomplicated by statistical data, and according to the author's "Foreword," making no claim to any perfected methods of character training.

The book is divided into two sections, with a very complete bibliography on its subject. *Part One*, sympathetically introduced by Patty Smith Hill, treats of character education courses, with a helpful study of various methods, and some sifting and analysis of guiding principles. Space permits of the selection of only a few of the major points.

The emphasis upon *special techniques necessary in moral education* is worthy of thought by the maker of teacher training courses, as well as by the classroom teacher. The author writes:

"Greater skill is perhaps required for one to be able to develop character traits than for one to teach any of the formal subjects of the elementary grades... A chief weakness seems to lie in the inadequate training of the teacher. The Normal School has not been willing to trust to her innate ability the teaching of reading or arithmetic, (yet) it has been assumed that she would be capable of seeing and using intelligently those situations which would arise in the classroom calling for character education."

Since, the author asserts, teachers must be concerned with the *soundness* of methods already devised for the improvement of ideals and behaviors, she devotes two chapters to brief analyses of The Five Point Plan; The Iowa Plan; The Los Angeles Citizenship Course, and several other types of procedures, summarizing their purposes. Discussion of methods or the principles of methods follows, such as (a) *The pros and cons of giving rewards for good conduct*. The wisdom of a continuous use of rewards, however sublimated, is questioned. (b) *The use of codes and pledges*. The disadvantages of a long-time pledge are emphasized and pertinent suggestions as to the making and understanding of pledges are made. (c) *Literature as a means of developing character*. A very good analysis of this moot question is made. She grants the value of vicarious experiences in lifting emotions and ideals to a higher level, but believes that, for most children, first hand experiences and the reality of problems that arise in the give-

²Amelia McLester: *The Development of Character Traits in Young Children*. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1931.

and-take of daily living provide the best means for such training. "While stories give general ideas of right and wrong, they probably serve as guides to one's personal behavior only when the situation in the story is very similar to one's experience."

The ablest chapter in Part One, in the reader's opinion, is the discussion of "Two Points of View"—the so-called *direct* and *indirect* methods of character training. "The supporters of the direct method are convinced that organized lessons need not be dull or dogmatic, and that organization insures definite subject matter." "The advocates of the indirect method believe that the child best develops good citizenship traits by learning to adjust himself to other children, to adults, and to situations." These contrasting views are analyzed, with a strong leaning towards the latter. The dangers of over-systematizing are clearly shown. A too highly organized system permits of no flexibility on the part of the teacher in meeting the needs which arise out of the child's immediate life situations. The author clinches her contentions with an amazing, because factual, illustration which she quotes, of an extreme (we hope) organization in a public school system, where "Morals are taught on Mondays; Manners on Tuesdays; Respect for Property on Wednesdays; Safety on Thursdays; and Thrift and Patriotism on Fridays." Furthermore, the claim is made by this system that "successive repetition over a period of years should serve to make the principles of character building a part of the life of the child." And this in the light of present studies on repetition and learning!

The author argues well in closing the section, on the need to change our terminology describing these two methods. Have we not used the term "*indirect*" inappropriately? Could any approach to the problem of personal conduct be more "*direct*," or bear a more direct effect than the intelligent use of the actual experiences of a group of children? "Surely the most direct teaching is that in which the child is *made conscious of the social significance of his own acts*, in which he is stimulated to continue desirable, and to refrain from undesirable, ways of behaving."

Part Two is the development of the above thesis, by records of conferences between the teacher (Miss McLester) and a group of children, each topic being the outcome of some crisis, event or questioning arising in the lives

of the children. The presentation is a rather happy one, serving not so much to establish an exact procedure as to inspire teachers to work out an effective, informal and intimate method of their own. There are many limitations, due to the stenographic type of recording, and the fact that it deals with only one set of conditions, but the frank quality of the teacher's questions, the quite spontaneous and open-minded child responses, and the critical analysis of the problems for the reader, at the end of each episode, stimulate much thinking.

The last chapters give other individual teacher methods, together with some of the possible outcomes in character formation. Miss McLester re-emphasizes the principle that all effort towards character building should lead children to be *objective* rather than *subjective* in attitude; never to watch themselves grow in character, but to have their attention directed outwards to the helping of others. "If we helped the children to make their school a happy place in which to live—we felt confident that character development would take care of itself, since character is inherent in behavior."

This little book is for the teacher's desk, readable enough to hand out to parents, helpful to teachers in communities where there is access to few books; simple in its practical suggestions, yet well grounded in the principles governing the development of moral ideals and social-moral behaviors.

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Another contribution from the University of Minnesota.—Dr. Florence Goodenough's new book, *Anger in Young Children*,³ is the result of an investigation which is of importance to all who are in contact with children. Although the study was based largely on reports of mothers rather than on a more controlled method of direct observation, the material gathered is of a nature which could be obtained in no other way. An observer strange to the home would probably have altered the situation to a considerable extent. Also, inasmuch as anger outbursts are among the most definite and tangible behavior manifestations, the method used seems to be warranted.

Only those mothers who had received a con-

³Florence L. Goodenough, *Anger in Young Children*. Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1931. Pp. v + 278. \$2.50.

siderable background of training in child-study groups were asked to take part in the study. More than half of them were college graduates and all but a few had had some college work. Carefully outlined blanks were given to them for the purpose of recording at the time of occurrence each anger outburst of the children in terms of time of day, both immediate and intrinsic causes, behavior observed, and methods of control used. These data from the records of one to four months' observations of 45 children are analyzed and presented in a clear and concise manner.

The results are divided into the following: behavior displayed during anger; the frequency and duration of outbursts; conditions making for increased irascibility; activities during which anger occurs; the immediate causes of anger and methods of control used. Further analyses are made for age and sex differences, types of activities in which the child is engaged and an excellent evaluation of the methods of control used in the chapter on "Parent-Child Relationships."

At least three outstanding results are significant for both the teacher and the mother of young children: (1) that anger outbursts occurred more frequently just before meal-time and bed-time; (2) that there was a decided relationship between the health of the child and frequency with which anger was displayed, and (3) that the number of anger outbursts reached its maximum during the second year of life and decreased rapidly thereafter. It is important for all who deal with young children to

know these cycles of behavior and to adjust to them accordingly.

The following paragraph deserves quotation in full:

"A subjective judgment of the total home situation secured by a consecutive reading of all records for each child leads to the conclusion that the control of anger in children is best achieved when the child's behavior is viewed with serenity and tolerance, when the standards set are within the child's ability to achieve, and when these standards are adhered to with sufficient consistency to permit the child to learn through uniformity of experience, without such mechanical adherence to routine that the child's emotional or physical well-being is sacrificed to the demands of an inflexible schedule. However, when departures from the established schedule are made, they should be determined by a recognition of the needs of the child and not simply by the convenience or mood of the adult in charge. Self-control in the parents is, after all, likely to be the best guarantee of self-control in the child."

Dr. Goodenough considers the results tentative until a larger number of children may be observed. The study is, however, extremely suggestive and revealing. It represents the best work that has been done thus far on the familiar subject of "temper tantrums."

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The published Proceedings of the Fourth Conference of the National Association for Nursery Education are now available. Copies may be secured for seventy-five cents from Dr. Abigail Eliot, 147 Ruggles Street, Boston, Massachusetts.

AMONG THE MAGAZINES

Editor, ELLA RUTH BOYCE

The Literary Digest in a recent issue reviewed an article on What Kindergarten Children Know which has aroused considerable interest. Tracing the study back, through the *Daily Science News Bulletin* which was quoted, the original publication is found to have been made in a periodical, as yet not mentioned in this department, *Child Development*. This is a fairly new quarterly, the issue quoted being that of June, 1931, Number 2 of Volume II, and therefore the sixth to be published. Its editor-in-chief is Buford Johnson of the Johns Hopkins University, and the article in question is a report of a study made by Cathryn A. Probst from the Institute of Child Welfare at the University of Minnesota. It begins with a survey of previous investigations in this field, followed by a statement of the nature of this study. To quote, "this is an attempt to evaluate by means of an improved technique the amount and type of general information that young children have at their command upon entering the elementary school." The children were all in kindergarten, were tested in the second half year and ranged from 5 years, 4 months to 6 years. Under the following headings, the study is discussed at length—development of the method, experimental conditions, types of response credited, types of incorrect response, reliability of the total score, correlation with the Detroit kindergarten test, average time for administration, occupational group and sex differences, percentages of success on individual items, and analysis of successes on individual items. A number of tables are used to illustrate the points made. A few points of especial interest emerge—for example—"Juvenile literature is responsible for replies similar to: 'Clouds are made of animals', the result of hearing a verse in which children see animals in clouds; and 'butter is made from tigers,' which is true of the tigers in the story of Little Black Sambo." Again, "One of the outstanding characteristics of the young child is his tendency to absorb the color of his surroundings and to manifest such an inclination by his ingenuous questions of remarks. Jacky Coogan

is 'the boy on Lawrence's sweater'." Another thought provoking report is this, "One boy could not give the name of any newspaper but ended a vivid description of a recent sensational murder case with the convincing statement, 'That's the paper we take!'" One hundred children were examined and eleven categories were used with six questions in each. The categories are as follows: Local Points of Interest; Time and Number; Current Topics and History; Natural Phenomena; Literature and Music; Animals, Birds, Insects; Plants and Flowers; Occupations and Industries; Household Arts; Simple Mechanics; Games and Amusements. Only one question resulted in a zero in the percentage response and that is "Who is Herbert Hoover?" "Who is Al Smith?" had a 1 per cent response as did also "What must you not do in tin-tin?" One wonders how many adult readers will even know in what category this last question belongs. 100 per cent scores were made on "How many legs has a horse?" and "What do we use to cut cloth?" also "What do we use to eat meat?" and "What do you use a saw for?" A few of the statements made in summary are quoted—"The test was formulated after observing kindergarten children to ascertain what topics were actually discussed by them, and by using suggestions made by trained workers in the field of preschool research." Another statement, "When correlated with the Detroit kindergarten test, there is a relationship of +.64 between intelligence and range of information, which is probably too low, due to defects in the administration of the Detroit test." Further, "There are marked differences in range of information between upper and lower halves of the socio-economic groups." And, "Sex differences in favor of the boys while less marked than those between social classes are great enough to be reliable. The difference between the mean scores earned by the two sexes is 2.85 times the standard error of the difference. It is apparent in each of the eleven categories but is greatest in regard to mechanical information and games and amusements."

The same journal carries an article on Emotions in Infancy by Florence L. Goodenough. This is a description of a novel study in which eight photographs of young children depicting a variety of emotional expressions were presented to 68 university students enrolled in a course in child training. Along with the photographs, twelve descriptions of events which produce emotional states in young children were given and the students were asked to match descriptions and photographs. The percentage of correct matching was 47.4, which is 5.7 times the percentage of successes to be expected by chance. The summary concludes, "The findings suggest that however greatly the overt expression of emotional states may be inhibited, modified, or intentionally assumed in the social relationships of adult life, the language of expression is nevertheless built upon a core of native reaction-patterns which appear at so early an age that they can hardly be ascribed to training. It seems probable that the role of training and experience in the expression of the emotions consists chiefly in a process of inhibition and substitution whereby the innate reaction-patterns take on a more or less distorted form. If this hypothesis be correct, the optimum period for the study of emotional expression is to be found in early childhood, before the original patterns of response have become too extensively overlaid by the habits resulting from social experience."

The El Paso Schools Standard in its March issue has an article by William Dow Boutwell of the Office of Education which is a thought provoking. It is called What Education Costs and discusses this much debated topic from a somewhat unusual angle. The writer starts with the suggestion that if our schools were not free and parents were asked to pay for the specific things which their children get in them, it would greatly modify their attitude toward school expenditures. Imagining a day in which the teacher is paid by the hour by each pupil, he shows what might happen. He tells us that the cost at present is only fifty-one cents per pupil, and points out that this is just about the price of a new golf ball. But of this fifty-one cents, only twenty-eight cents goes to the teacher, the rest being needed for supplies and building maintenance. Today when all service is being scanned to reduce expenses to the lowest possible levels, he feels that "Parents owe it to their children to weigh

carefully the many proposed methods of economizing in school expenditures." The reason for this is that many important problems lie ahead and they "can not be solved by a blighted generation of imperfectly trained children." Finally he says, "Wise buyers know that there is really no such thing as a bargain. In the long run you get exactly what you pay for. The quality of ability attracted to teaching varies according to the rewards for teacher's services. The quality of instruction your child receives at school is governed by factors beyond the control of the teacher—beyond control of the superintendent. It is governed in the last analysis by the share of the tax dollar which your community is willing to pay for teacher's salaries."

This same magazine has an amusing editorial on Seats. Its basis statement is that "Seats are instruments of torture." That most seats are uncomfortable is pretty generally recognized but this writer tells us that the idea that there is such a thing as a 'good place to sit down' is a Utopian dream. He thinks that the only two positions tolerable for the human body are standing and lying down. He says "Seats are an artificial device which civilization has fastened on us, just as it has imposed on us the wearing of collars. We merely think it is better to wear collars, just as we imagine we want to sit down." This idea is developed at some length with illustrations and it is pointed out how the discomfort which is really caused by the sitting position is otherwise ascribed by the uncomfortable person. He says "He thinks the company is dull, or the speaker is a bore, or his paper is a wretched sheet, or his book is worthless rot, and he may vent his physical discomfort on such blameless objects." The question naturally follows as to how many things could be done if seats were abolished, things for which seats seem essential. And that is the beauty of this new idea, they would not. For he says, "The vice of using seats led to such evils as card games and etc., and soon as all sitting down is abolished, our pudgy matrons and flabby men will be out on the golf links or at the tennis courts, and the human race will be better off." Now as to how this will affect the schools he has this to say—"It should be a fundamental principle that no two people should talk to one another longer than is natural and comfortable for either to listen standing up. As a matter of fact, 'what is the matter with our schools?' is fully an-

swered by saying that the whole trouble is that they have seats in them. Remove all seats from schools and behold what would happen: (1) The teacher would stand up and teach—boil it down and really teach. (2) The pupils would stand up and ask and answer and work at the blackboard and discuss and learn—and come to the point about matters because when tired standing the next move would be to go out and lie down under the shade of the trees, if rest be needed, or to go to games in which all would participate if recreation be needed."

While close scrutiny may detect some flaws in his logic—the ideas presented are at least novel and may help to clarify opinion.

Educational Method for March prints an article on Critics' Comments to Student Teachers, by Homer L. Humke and Warren Fruquher of Evansville College, Evansville, Indiana. This is an account of a study made of the actual reports given by critic teachers to student teachers at the conclusion of lessons. The critic teachers were asked to keep carbon copies of all such reports and 964 were thus collected. They were asked to make criticisms related to all actual needs as seen by them. These were written on blank pads with no private directions. Evansville does, however, use the Salm scale in its supervisory work. It is printed here and using it as a working basis the critic teachers' comments were analyzed. The authors note as "one of the greatest needs of teacher training, critic teachers trained in the fullest details of supervision." They find "One encouraging point is the great stress put upon the personal qualities of teachers, not only the frequency with which such points are mentioned but the fact that very often definite suggestions were given for acquiring a trait." The chief weaknesses of student teachers as revealed by the study are the following: "Poor English is used. Teacher was not enthusiastic. Questions were not well distributed. Pupils were not held accountable for preparation. Teacher repeated the answers of pupils. All pupils were not attentive. All points were not cleared up." In summary, critic teachers almost always mention more good points in teaching than they do poor ones. Of 1,606 items checked, 1,005 reports were favorable. Undoubtedly critic teachers confine themselves physical, mental, and emotional."

Child Study for April is devoted to answering the question What Children Think of Parents. This is discussed by a number of writers from different angles. There are two studies of parent-child relationships in other countries—Parents and Children in Samoa by Margaret Mead and Obedience? Russian Children Say No by Nucia P. Lodge. Under the heading Other Times—Other Manners we read, "Societies more closely organized than ours today would not even raise the question of what children think of their elders and (naturally) betters. Those with a long background of accepted custom—though differing in all else as completely as do our own great-grandparents a hundred year ago and the Samoan Islanders even today—would only expect children to submit unfalteringly to them and their ideals. A society like Russia, on the other hand, which frankly breaks with all the past, demands that youth assume as its special province the responsibility to criticize and discard the elders and their pretensions. One virtue of our own current interest in children and their parents may be that we do not take quite so much for granted as any of these others. Out of all our questioning may emerge a sense of what is transient and what more enduring." Little Frank—or the Affectionate Child, reprinted from the *Mother's Magazine* for February, 1833, presents a startling contrast to present-day attitudes, but like the practices in Samoa and in Russia represents a viewpoint which is entirely self-assured.

It is impossible to review the articles but here are a few significant quotations. Beatrice M. Hinkle—"It is generally recognized among progressive educators as well as psychologists that the foundations of the character of the future adult are all laid down before the seventh year. . . . As far as the child is concerned, our way is fairly clear; seven years and one generation would be sufficient to alter the attitude of humanity. But this implies parents and teachers not only capable of seeing a vision, but of living it." Lois Hayden Meek—"Thoughtful parents will never let their children lose confidence in the security of the home and family, but will also jealously guard each child's right for increasing independence and increasing control of his own life. These are the inalienable rights of childhood—their safeguards of normal wholesome development, physical, mental, and emotional."

RESEARCH ABSTRACTS

Editor, ELIZABETH MOORE MANWELL

Why Do Mothers Over-protect or Reject Their Children? Teachers and guidance workers in groups of young children cannot fail to be interested in a series of investigations carried on by students at the Smith College for Social Work,¹ which are published in their recent March issue. These studies are all concerned with the problems of maternal over-protection rejection, and were based on patients who were studied at the Institute for Child Guidance in New York City.

Some factors in the causation of over-protection on the part of mothers is the subject of the first study. Thirty-two mothers of children at the clinic who clearly over-protected their children were contrasted with thirty-two others who did not markedly over-protect or reject. Among the main differences were the greater number of boys and of "only" children in the over-protected group. Moreover, the over-protective mothers exceeded the control group in the possession of the following traits: unhappy childhood and early development of a responsible role. In addition, in the case of the over-protected children, a greater number of them than of the control group were children who because of some serious or frightening illness or deformity had presented to their mothers especially hazardous problems of rearing. There were seventy-nine per cent of the children in the over-protective group who had undergone "extra hazards" in their early childhood.

Miss Foley's study continues the investigation started by Miss Haugh, with especial emphasis on the relationships between a mother's early experiences and her attitudes toward her child. In particular the attention of this study

was directed toward finding out whether an early lack of affection as a child coupled with undue early responsibility is likely to produce over-protection when that child in turn becomes a mother.

For this purpose analysis was made of the first 100 cases, beginning with case 1,000, of the Institute for Child Guidance which were complete enough to give the necessary information about the mother's background. The points noted in going over that part of the case study which dealt with the mother's childhood were: Did the mother consider her childhood happy or unhappy? Did the mother as a child receive affection from her parents? Did the mother as a child have to play a responsible role (that is, did she have early household duties or the tending of children which limited her in her social, recreational or educational development)? Was she as a child dominated by her parents or subject to severe discipline?

After examining the record for information about the mother's childhood, her attitude toward the child whom she brought to the Institute for treatment was classified as follows:

Group I. *Over-protection*, evidenced by:

1. Prolonged infantile care, such as dressing and undressing the child long after he is able to do it for himself.
2. Over-indulgence and special privileges, such as giving him large amounts of spending money, allowing him to upset the routine by his noisiness and destructiveness.
3. Excessive care, such as undue anxiety over his diet or health.
4. Prevention of his developing independent behavior, as in fighting the child's battles for him, or supervising his choice of activities.
5. Excessive contacts, such as having the child sleep in the same bed with the mother.
6. Excessive pampering: hugging and kissing the child on the least provocation;

¹Smith College Studies in Social Work, Vol. II, March, 1932.
Haugh, Elizabeth, "Some Factors in the Etiology of Maternal Over-protection," p. 188.

Foley, Patricia, "Early Responsibility and Affect Hunger as Selective Criteria in Maternal Over-protection," p. 208.

Lewenberg, Martha, "Marital Disharmony as a Factor in the Etiology of Maternal Over-protection," p. 224.

Figge, Margaret, "Some Factors in the Etiology of Maternal Rejection," p. 237.

Brunk, Christine, "The Effects of Maternal Over-protection on the Early Development and Habits of Children," p. 261.

Freeman, Margaret, "Some Factors Associated with Length of Breast-feeding," p. 274.

finding excuses for his behavior, or lying to him to get him to do what the mother wants.

Group II. Rejection, evidenced by:

1. Mother's expression of hatred or hostility toward the child.
2. Mother's wish that she had never borne the child, or that she could get rid of him.
3. Mother's statement that the child had never given her any comfort, only trouble.
4. Mother's insulting remarks about the child, considering him a sneak, a liar; being over-critical of him and never satisfied with anything he accomplished.

Group III. Other Attitudes (The Neutral Group)

These mothers were neither over-protective nor rejecting to such a degree as to be important factors, in this respect, in their children's problems.

Of the 10 cases thus analyzed forty-one cases were classified as over-protective, nineteen as rejecting, and forty as neutral. In the over-protective group thirty-four were boys and seven girls (as contrasted with twenty-four boys and sixteen girls in the neutral group). In the rejected group of children nine were boys and ten were girls.

A much larger proportion of "only" children was found in the over-protected group and in the rejected group than in the neutral group. There also seemed to be a trend toward over-protection or rejection in small families instead of in large ones.

When the intelligence of the children in these groups was tabulated it was found that the mothers tended to over-protect the bright child (twenty-four per cent of the over-protected children having an intelligence quotient of 120 or over), whereas fifty-eight per cent of the rejected group had an intelligence of less than 100.

When the mother's childhood was analyzed it was grouped under these four headings:

1. No affection; responsibility.
2. No affection; no responsibility.
3. Affection; responsibility.
4. Affection; no responsibility.

It was found that sixty-eight per cent of the

children in the over-protective group had mothers who in their childhood were in the "no affection and responsibility" group. The childhood of the mothers in the rejecting group was characterized by "affection and no responsibility." The author's interpretation is that lack of affection in childhood is usually accompanied by the imposition of responsibility, and that this kind of childhood definitely makes for over-protection when such a child becomes a mother. The author also suggests that since the childhood of the rejecting mothers was characterized by affection and no responsibility, possibly women who live under such completely satisfying childhood conditions do not want to assume the role of parents. "If being neither over-protective nor rejecting is considered the ideal attitude of a mother toward her children, then it would appear from this table that *affection and responsibility* are the most favorable childhood conditions under which a woman can live."

As regards marital adjustments, sixty-three per cent of the children in the over-protective group had mothers whose marriage adjustments were unsatisfactory. "This may indicate that a woman whose childhood was insecure has difficulty in accepting the more maturing relationship with a husband but turns instead to her children for affection and a feeling of superiority."

A further contribution to this series is the study by Lewenberg on the possible marital disharmony as a possible cause of over-protection by the mother. She analyzed the records of forty-five over-protective and forty-five non-over-protective mothers, and compared them for fourteen factors which were thought to make for marital discord. She found that there was a consistently higher frequency of these factors in the over-protective group than among the non-over-protective.

The greatest differences were found to be as follows: among the over-protective there was much more *social maladjustment* and *sexual maladjustment* between husband and wife. There was much more disagreement between the parents over *discipline* and over the *desire for freedom*; there were also more *interfering relatives* and more *economic dissatisfaction*. There were slightly but not significantly higher scores among the over-protective group in the following factors: *differences* (with their husbands) in *religion, nationality, age, or education*; and in such factors concerning the mar-

riage as *not a love choice, thwarted ambitions and domination by the mother.*

The author of this study of marital disharmonies concludes: "Combinations of the positive factors showed a much higher incidence in the over-protective than in the non-over-protective group, leading to the conclusion that over-protection can be traced at least in part to a piling up of adverse conditions in the marital situation."

One more study in this series may be described here: the investigation by Figge of some factors in the causation of maternal rejection.

First, the author defines "rejection" as a refusal to accept some particular thing because of a disinterest or dislike for it. "So the mother who is classed by psychiatrists as a rejecting mother is one whose behavior toward her child is such that she consciously or unconsciously has a desire to be free from the child and considers it a burden." The rejection, according to this theory, may show itself in two ways: the mother may over-protect the child and be over-solicitous for him due to feelings of guilt, or she may show overt dislike for the child and definitely neglect him. It is with the latter type of mother that this study is concerned.

Thirty-five rejecting mothers were chosen on the basis of agreement of staff opinion, that is, the psychiatrist, psychologist, pediatrician, and social worker agreed at conference that the patient was neglected by his mother. Thirty-five others were also selected which gave no evidence of rejection by their mothers.

In comparing the rejected and non-rejected children little difference was found in regard to their age, sex, ordinal position in family, size of family, intelligence quotient, and physical condition.

However, in the comparison of rejecting mothers with the non-rejecting mothers, very interesting differences appeared, as the following figures show:

<i>Rejecting mothers</i>	<i>Number</i>
Unhappy childhood	26
Social frustrations in marriage.....	26
Social incompatibility (with husband)	28
Sexual incompatibility (with husband)	25
Economic change through marriage..	27
Social change through marriage.....	18
Child was unwanted.....	33

<i>Non-rejecting mothers</i>	<i>Number</i>
Unhappy childhood	7

Social frustrations in marriage.....	5
Social incompatibility	13
Sexual incompatibility	11
Economic change through marriage..	11
Social change through marriage.....	3
Child was unwanted.....	6

The total number of times in which the nine factors were found in their positive form in each case averaged for the rejecting mothers 6 per case and for the non-rejecting mothers 2.2 per case.

When the factors in the childhood of these mothers were analyzed there were to be found an average of 10.5 *adverse* factors for the rejecting group as contrasted with five factors which were adverse in each case of the childhood of the non-rejecting mothers. Among the factors occurring at least twice as often in the rejecting group were:

Unhappy childhood	
Mother showed no affection	
Father abused children	
Father drank to excess	
Broken home	
Mother worked outside	
Step- or foster-parent	
Placed in institution	
Allowed few privileges	
Other siblings favored	
Carried much responsibility	
Had to give up educational plans	
Had to care for younger children	

Incompatibility in the marriage relationship appeared in many of the rejecting cases. In the majority of cases, the rejecting mother regretted that she had married and was disappointed in her husband. In many cases she admitted that she did not marry for love, but either to get away from an unhappy childhood home or because she believed she foresaw financial security or because she thought the man was in love with her.

The rejecting mothers faced financial worry and the question of having to work outside the home. They complained of little social life and of having no common interests with their husbands, rarely going out together. Quarreling was frequent and the rejecting mothers complained that their husbands were inconsiderate of them. Because of inadequate preparation of them. It was found that in the case of the rejecting mothers their deprivations seemed to outweigh their satisfactions.

These studies bring clearly to light, for the benefit of teachers and all other guidance workers, of the need of looking, in the case of the problem child, for factors in his early life and in the whole life history of his parents.

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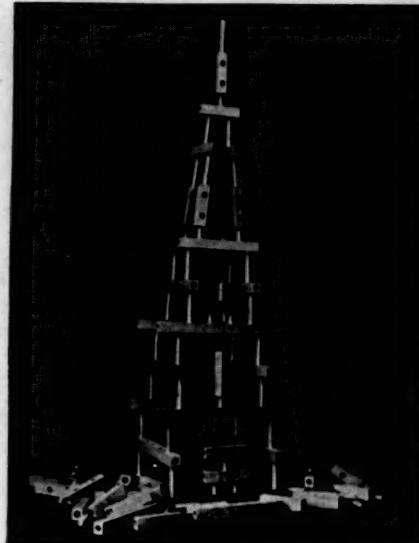
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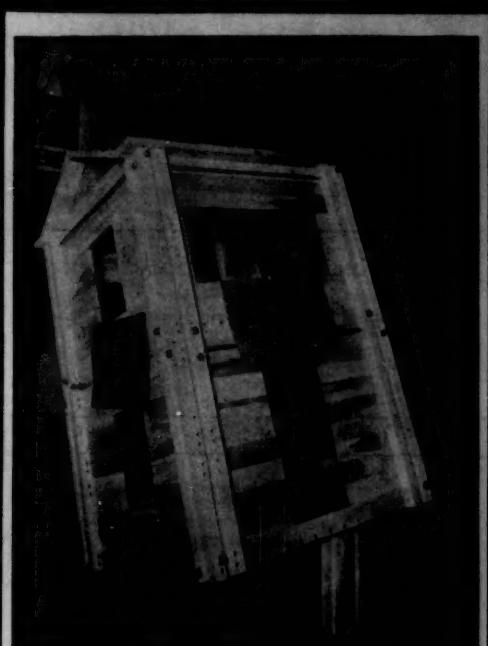
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